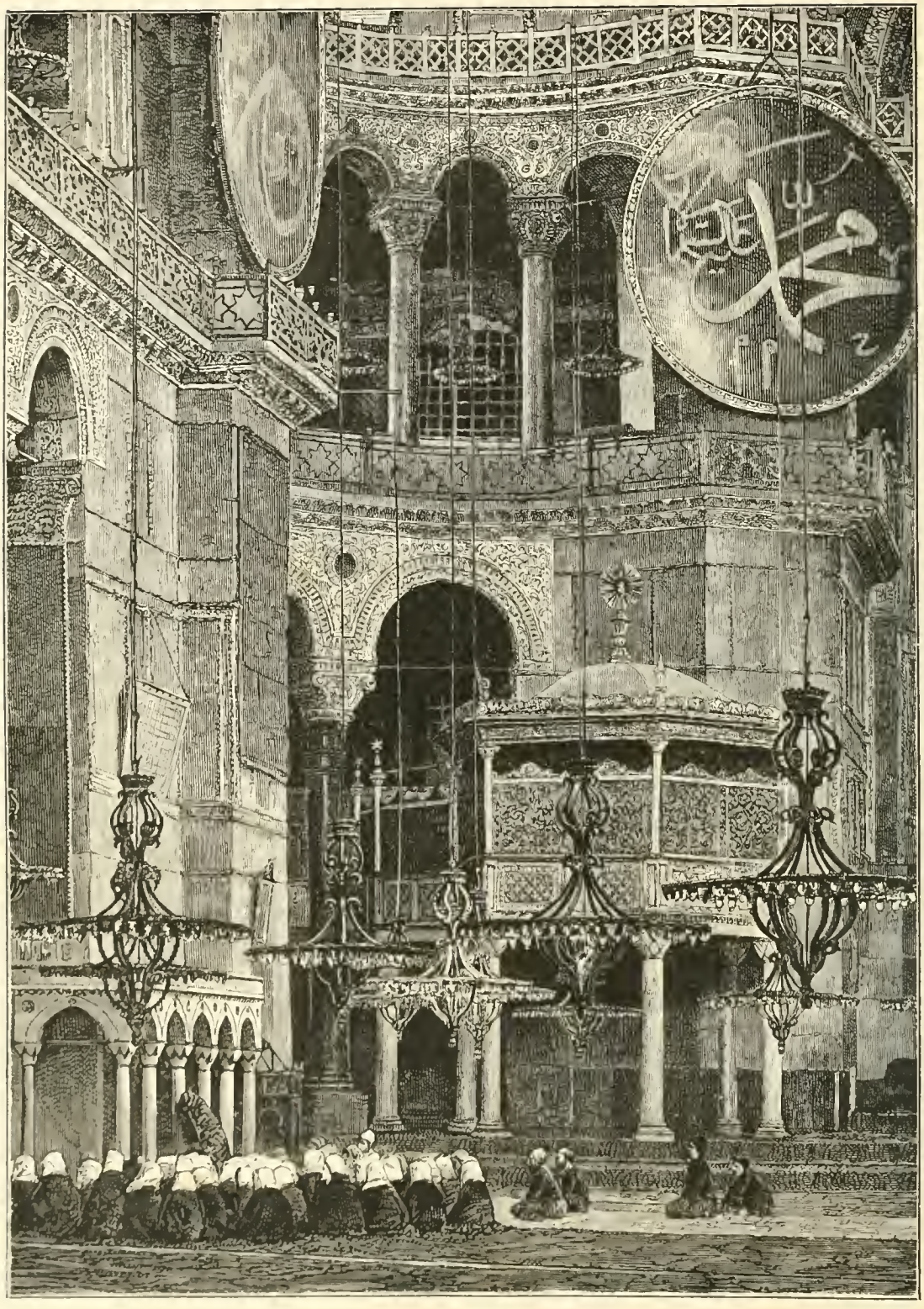
THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.



THE INTERIOR OF THE MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE.

THE

COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD:

BEING

A POPULAR DESCRIPTION OF THE VARIOUS CONTINENTS, ISLANDS, RIVERS, SEAS, AND PEOPLES OF THE GLOBE.

BY

ROBERT BROWN, M.A.,

PH.D., F.L.S., F.R.G.S.,

Author of "The Races of Mankind," etc. etc.

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THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.

CHAPTER I.

The Turkish Empire: Its General Characteristics.

E are now passing from Asia, and can either step into Africa, or by crossing the narrow Dardanelles enter Europe. But in either case we should be in the country of an Asiatic people. In short, we cannot better begin our last volume then by a sketch of the remarkable empire which, arising in Asia, in time spread into Africa, and for three centuries at least has transferred its centre of gravity to Europe, there to attain great magnificence, only to decline and grow decrepit, until its boundaries are getting so rapidly circumscribed that its most important territories promise before long to be again in Asia. For some time past we have been traversing a region strewn with the wreck of kingdoms. In the midst of lonely deserts, where the tent of the nomad is almost the only sign of life, we come upon the sculptured stones of palaces, and the inscribed tablets which boast of the exploits of conquerors. The very names of the empires and monarchs who have made Central Asia the arena for their ruthless rule would fill pages with words, which could scarcely be intelligible to readers whose lives have not been spent among Asiatic manuscripts or cuneiform inscriptions. We are again stumbling among the ruins which ambition has for centuries wrought. All Turkey in Asia is covered with memorials of the past. Babylon—"that great city"—Nineveh, Asia Minor, Palestine—all are comprehended under this portion of the Sultan's dominions. Africa is not less interesting, for here is Egypt, the home of so many associations, and Arabia, that arid land in which sprang into life, and was nurtured, the faith which proved such an aid to the conquerors who adopted it. Finally the ruined nationalities on which the Ottoman Empire in Europe is founded are numerous, and of a bewildering ethnological complexity. They have been crushed, and they have risen again, only to be seemingly effaced once more, until, as the bonds which bind the Caliphate together get loosened, they spring up afresh, aided by force without and fraud within, until the "Eastern Question" becomes one at the mention of which diplomatists become pale, and the readers of newspapers grow a-wearied.

The names Ottomans, Othomans, Osmanli, or Osmanlü, by which the Turks are known, are derived from Othoman, or Osman I., the actual founder of the empire. Up to the thirteenth century the term Toork was applied to a great series of tribes stretching over the greater part of Asia, but which had never yet got welded into one power. Othman was the son of the chief of one of these tribes—the Ogûzes—who inhabited the Steppes east of the Caspian. The lad was seemingly not born under a fortunate star, for at a few years earlier the Mongol invasion which was setting in from the north-east had swept the Ogûzes before it, and scattered them among the mountains of Armenia and Mesopotamia. But a handful of them having aided the Seljuk Sultan of Konieh against his Khaurezmian and Mongol enemies, they received a grant of land in Phrygia. Othoman, by taking advantage of every chance, and being utterly unscrupulous as to friend or foe, died after having advanced the little lordship which he had inherited to the great kingdom of Phrygia, Bithynia and the neighbouring districts—to, indeed, the greater part of Asia Minor—and thus laid the foundations of the Turkish Empire. His successors followed up his advantages, and soon gained a footing in Europe by the capture of Gallipoli, Koiridicastron, and other fortresses on that coast. The tottering Greek Empire thus early (1326—1359) was beginning to feel the blows which were soon to tumble it over. But the polished and effeminate race, whose capital was Constantinople, affected to despise the barbarians. Gallipoli, they pretended not to consider of any account. "It was only a hogsty, and a pottle of wine"—the allusion being to the magazines and cellars built here by Justinian. However, as the historian Knolles very shrewdly remarks, "by taking such hogssties and pottles of wine the Turks had gone so far into Thracia that Amurath a few years later had placed his royal seat at Adrianople." The next step was to train the Janizaries, Spathis, and Zanis, warlike legionaries, who in time became more terrible to their nominal master than to his enemies, and compelled those strong measures which history records. But meantime they aided the Turkish Sultans in subduing the various tributary kingdoms, until their camps extended so far as to confine the Byzantine Empire to the limits of Constantinople, and some of the near-lying districts of Thrace and Bulgaria. With varying successes—but ever decidedly onward—the Turks continued their wars in Europe, until in 1453 Mohammed II. stormed Constantinople and destroyed the last trace of the Byzantine Empire, which from that day to this has continued the capital of the Turks. Bajazet II. extended the Turkish Empire to its furtherest limits in Europe and Asia, and also for a time brought under the rule of his sceptre districts which have long since passed away from his successors.

During the first half of the sixteenth century the Turks were as powerful on water as on land. Their fleet commanded the Mediterranean in such force, that without the "Grand Signor's" permission no foreign vessel could navigate that inland sea. Selim II. was the first of his dynasty who came in contact with an obscure northern people called the Russians, who up to that date had been unknown in Southern Europe. His successors have, however, had several opportunities of cultivating the embarrassing acquaintance which Selim made with them during his futile attempt to cut a ship canal between the Don and the Volga, and capture Astrakhan as a part of the programme. Amurath III. dictated to the Poles whom they should elect a king, concluded

an alliance with the English against Philip of Spain, humbled Persia, and though he was afterwards compelled to retreat in humiliation from Hungary and Transylvania, for a time carried his victorious armies almost to the very gates of Vienna. Under Mohammed III. the weakness of the Central Administration was becoming evident. Tributaries were rebelling, and enemies were encroaching on the conquered country at a distance from the seat of government. Under his successors, though occasionally the Turks have increased their conquests, it cannot in general terms be denied that the progress of the empire has been downward. Its old enemies have practically ceased from troubling it, but either directly or indirectly the dominions of the Sultan have been rapidly pared by the Czar, until latterly whole provinces have been lopped off, and subject princes have secured their independence either wholly or partially. The Crimean war partially recouped the country for the losses it had sustained in former campaigns with the Russians. It also brought Turkey fully into the comity of European nations, but it involved her in expenses which, under her corrupt mode of administration, she was unable to bear. In the end an act of bankruptcy, coupled with incorrigible misgovernment, alienated from her the regard of her old allies, so that a petty rebellion which began in Herzegovina ended by 1877 in a gigantic war with Russia, in conjunction with the revolted Montenegrins, Servians, Bulgarians, and Roumanians, which the Sultan had to fight unaided by assistance outside the empire. The result of the war was that Servia, Montenegro, and Roumania received their independence, with some increase of territory, that Greece was also promised an addition to her bounds, that Bulgaria was established as a tributary principality, and Roumelia as a partially autonomous state, the Sultan's dominions in Europe being as limited as were those of the last Byzantine Emperor just before the Turks took Constantinople. Finally, in Asia the Russians received, in addition to a large war indemnity, considerable additions to their huge empire at the cost of the defeated Turks, while the English had ceded to them in trust the island of Cyprus, and the Protectorate of Asia Minor, under certain conditions which were privately entered into between the Queen and the Sultan prior to the assembling of the Berlin Congress, which settled the final terms of peace between the late combatants. Whether the decadence will continue is a question into which it is no part of our province to enter, and which, moreover, space will not admit of discussing; these few paragraphs on the history of the empire which we have given being intended solely to enable the reader to understand, somewhat more clearly than would otherwise be possible, the description of its component parts to which subsequent pages will be devoted.

Divisions and Government.

In spite of all its pruning, the Sultan rules a vast empire which might in time become even more powerful than it was in its best days when it was smaller. In Europe he has an immense country of 80,000 square miles, though before the Treaty of Berlin the extent and population of the Sultan's possessions were more than double what they are now. These—including in addition to the mainland, Crete, Thasos, Imbros, Lemnos, Samothrace, and the tributary principality of Samos — contain a

MAP OF SOUTH-EASTERN EUROPE, WESTERN ASIA, AND NORTHERN AND CENTRAL AFRICA.

population of at least 8,499,000, of whom the majority are Christians, little more than 3,000,000 being Moslems, and less than 80,000 Jews. In Asia there may be a population of 17,500,000 recognising the rule of the Sultan, and in Africa, including the vilayet of Tripoli, Egypt, and Tunis, 20,500,000, giving 47,000,000 of subjects to the Sultan, though in some estimates the number is made much smaller. Indeed, with a few exceptions, nothing except rough guesses can be obtained on which to found an accurate return of the population of the Ottoman Empire.

VIEW OF SERAGLIO POINT, CONSTANTINOPLE.

The Government of Turkey is still a pure despotism. An attempt was made just before the war of 1875–8 to so far yield to the pressure of European opinion as to summon a Parliament. This Assembly showed some spirit, though the majority of the members were mere nominees of the Government, and did its will. The others protested in vain, though whether the experiment would have worked well in a country where the people cannot well grasp the theory of such an institution is very doubtful. At all events, the war put an end to it, and the Sultan and the Pashas continued to be the sole fountains of rule. The Sheik-ul-Islam, the chief of the Ulemas, or theological jurists, whose legal text-book is the Koran, however, claims some control over the Sultan, and frequently

exercises it to the extent of vetoing his decrees. The Cabinet, or Divan, consists of the Grand Vizier, or a Prime Minister, who is usually known by that name, and a number of other heads of departments who preside over the affairs of the army, the navy, and so forth, the whole being an Eastern assemblage of advisers tinctured with Western ideas, and glossed over with a thin veneer of European polish. The "Walis" are Governors of Provinces, or *Vilayets*, and each vilayet is, in its turn, divided into a number of *Sanjaks* presided over by Mutessarifs. These in their turn are further subdivided into *Kazas*, ruled by Kaïmakams, and the Kazas again comprise each a number of *Nahijehs*, or smaller "parishes," consisting of villages and hamlets. Extortion is the rule in most out-of-the-way places, but of late years the power of the provincial governors has been materially curbed, and the people are, as a rule, where of the prevailing faith, reasonably comfortable. Even the Christians (except in very exceptional cases, which have within late years become painfully familiar to the world) are no longer treated with habitual cruelty. A Mohammedan can change his religion as he pleases, without rendering himself liable to capital punishment. Education is still at a low ebb in the country, though for more than thirty years schools of a kind have been established, and young "effendis," or gentlemen, frequently go to Paris to complete their education. In that city they unhappily often imbibe more than book knowledge, and altogether the Western gloss sits badly on the Eastern skin. Colleges for teaching medicine, the military art, agriculture, &c., have been established in the country itself, and newspapers in Turkish, Greek, French, Arabic, and even English, are printed and lead a life as precarious as such novelties must expect, if they indulge in free comments on men and things. As a rule, however, Moslems learn little which is of any use to them in after life. The Harem system acts viciously on them, for the child, at a time when he ought to be laying the principles of sound training, only absorbs impure ideas, and takes the first steps towards those habits which have made the Turks the scoff of a more cleanly living world. Turkish mothers have not the slightest control over their children, who really "hang as they grow," and pick up education in the manner most agreeable to them. The children of the wealthy sometimes have tutors, but the offspring of the poorer classes attend such schools as are within their reach, and when not paddling in the gutter, making mud pies or playing with walnuts, are in the more retired streets amusing themselves by annoying Christian passers-by, by shouting "Giaour gepek"—"Infidel dog"—and throwing stones after them. They have no instructive books, and few toys. Gymnastics and healthy games are unknown; cold baths are equally foreign to the Turkish child's experience; he is not "taken for walks" and goes to bed when it pleases him. In sight of their father and his guests the children are taught to put on the demure look of old men and women, and to make salaams the most solemn. The moment the door is closed on them they have no restraint placed on them; they use the most licentious language, and are indulged in their wicked propensities by the parasites, slaves, and dependants hanging about the house. "On rising," writes the 'Consul's wife,' from whose book these facts have been derived, "no systematic attention is paid either to their food, ablutions, or dressing. A wash is given to their faces and hands, but their heads are not regularly or daily combed. Their

dress, much neglected, is baggy and slovenly at all times; but it becomes a ridiculous caricature when copied from the European fashion. Shoes and stockings are not much used in the house, but when worn, the former are unfastened and the latter kept up by rags, hanging down their legs. A gedjlik (night-dress) of printed calico, an intari (dressing-gown), ayakkab (trousers), and a libarde (quilted jacket) worn in the house, do duty both by night and day. Children are allowed to breakfast on anything found in the larder, or buy from the hawkers of cakes in the street." The conversation which is carried on before young people is such as would never be permitted in anything like decent society, and the constant society of the "dadi," or slave, appointed to attend on a child of wealthy parents, is not calculated to improve what home life has corrupted.

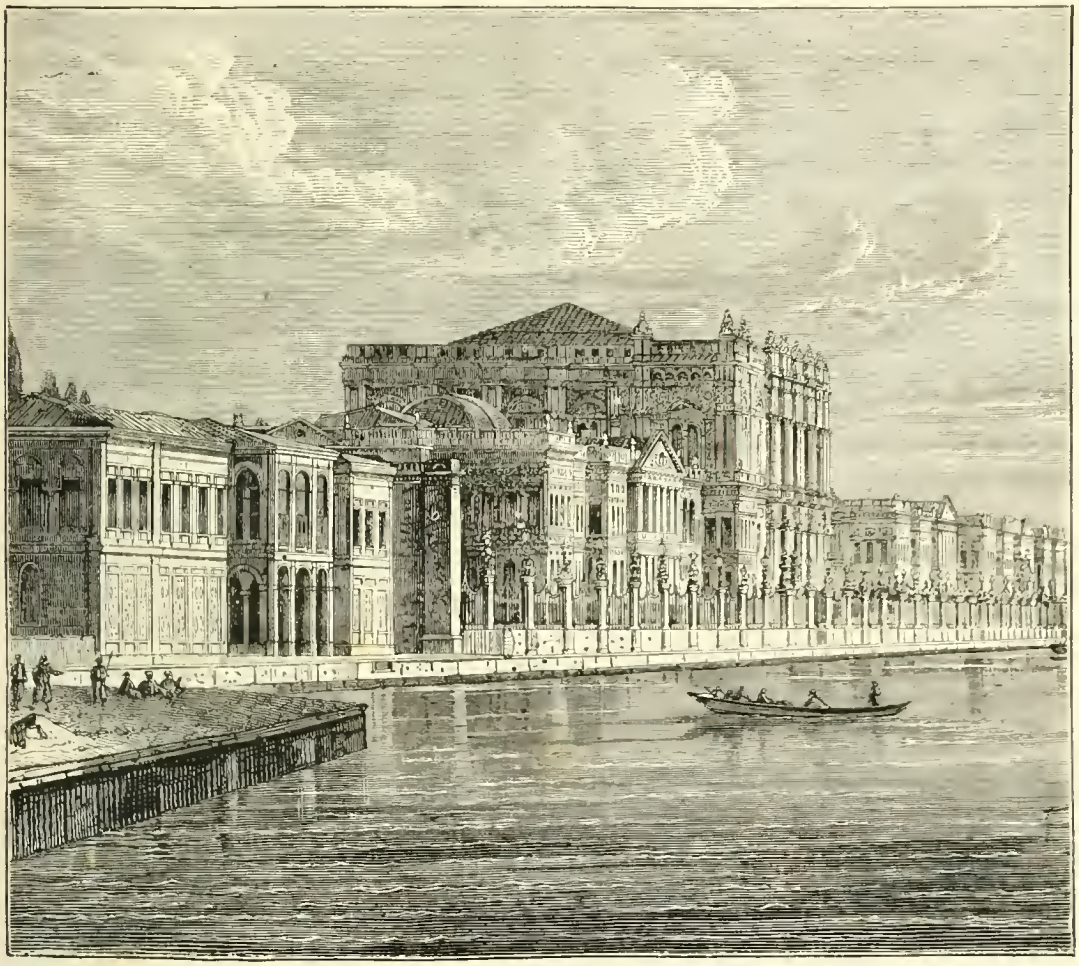
The great obstacle to education in Turkey is the difficulty which orthodox Mohammedans feel in separating education from "the fetters of religion." Even the sceptical Mohammedans—who really profess little belief in their supposed faith—dare not openly repudiate these retrograde notions of the intimate connection between education, law, and the Koran. The Mahallé Mektebs, or primary schools, and the Medresses, or mosque colleges, were long in Turkey, as in all Moslem countries, the only media through which all classes of society obtained the rudiments of education. Into these schools the young Turk was introduced at an early age. All he learnt from the Hodja, pipe in one hand and cane in the other, was to repeat by rote lessons from the Koran, spiced here and there with comments which consisted of inculcations of all that was narrowest and most intolerant in the doctrines of the Prophet. Preparatory schools have of late years been founded for the instruction of children on leaving the Mektebs, in which something like a civilised education is given the pupils. After these are some advanced schools, where instruction fitted for those who are to enter the public service or the learned professions is imparted. The Greeks and other non-Mohammedan nationalities in Turkey are better educated. But like every other institution within the dominion of the Sultan, establishments for training youth are mismanaged. The regulations sound well enough to read, and it is only when the practice is examined into that the deficency becomes apparent.

Finance.

The revenue of the Turkish Empire cannot be stated with anything like accuracy. The real revenue never reaches the treasury, as it passes through the hands of so many underlings, all of whom have an interest in pilfering it, that they take care not to publish the actual receipts and expenditure. After the Crimean war the Turk learned the art of borrowing. This cheerful amusement went on bravely enough until no more money could be got. Then the interest was not forthcoming, and ever since 1877 the country may be said to have been in an actual condition of uncertificated bankruptcy. Roughly given, the revenue, in round figures, is stated to be about £19,000,000, and the expenditure £23,000,000. But this by no means expresses the actual condition of matters, for good authorities have calculated that for several years past the actual

revenue has fallen short of the expenditure by from ten to thirty-six millions annually. It is known that the Government have been driven to great straits to meet their most ordinary wants. The palace expenses have been difficult to find, and even the rations of the soldiers have had to be reduced, owing to the refusal of the army contractors to supply more beef without being paid for what they had already delivered. Indeed, since so many tax-paying provinces have been dismembered from the empire as the result of the late war of 1875–8, the revenue is believed not to exceed £10,000,000, while the nominal debts of the country contracted in the twenty years prior to 1874 are said to amount to nearly £185,000,000, and the internal and floating debt has been estimated at over £75,000,000. To raise funds caimés, or paper assignats, have been issued, and it is calculated that some £90,000,000 of this almost worthless stuff is in circulation. Until the entire system of Turkish administration is changed, the country can never obtain a healthy life. The taxes must be collected differently from what they have been, otherwise bribery and peculation will continue, just as they did in India until Lord Cornwallis put the civil service of that country on a proper footing. Whether this is ever possible in Turkey, with a Sultan and an administration who care little about any reforms out of which they cannot make something, is doubtful, while it is more than doubtful whether the pashas, either of the old school or the new, who are scattered over the most distant portions of the empire, would ever carry into force a system by which they would be the losers, and only the people with whom they have no sympathy and care little to conciliate would be the gainers. The Sultan's establishment is only a type on a large scale of many others on a small one. In spite of the misfortunes of the empire the old extravagance is still kept up, and the great treasures which the palace contains are never drawn upon to help the deficit in the public chest. It has been estimated that the Imperial civil list amounts to nearly £2,000,000; but this does not include the revenue from crown lands, and the endless presents which the Sultan receives from every high functionary of the State, as well as from private individuals who desire to obtain his good graces. Yet this large income is reported to be insufficient to defray the enormous expenses of the seraglio, or "palace establishment," which consists of more than twenty splendid buildings along the shores of the Bosphorus (pp. 5, 9). To minister to it there are about 5,500 servants of both sexes, 300 of whom are in the kitchen and 100 in the stables. There are 400 boatmen, 400 musicians, and 200 attendants for the menageries and aviaries; 100 porters, and 300 guards are employed about the various palaces and summer residences, and the harem contains 1,200 female slaves. The functionaries who attend on the Sultan are endless, and as every great official has a host of smaller ones to see to his comforts, there cannot be less than 7,000 persons fed daily in the palace, at a cost of £511,000 for the *employés* alone. This charge includes £1,120 for wood, £1,040 for rice, and £16,000 for sugar. The wages—when paid—amount to £200,000, in which sum are of course not included perquisites and pilfering; and as the stables contain 600 horses, and the coach-houses 200 carriages, mostly presents from the late Khedive of Egypt (who again purchased them at the cost of his creditors), the contractors for provender, the coachmen, grooms, harness makers, and other individuals who cater to the horses, must take another huge share of the Imperial

civil list. Pictures, porcelain, &c., never cost, under the "ante-bellum" *régime*, less than £140,000 per annum, Abdul Assiz—in spite of his religion not permitting likenesses of any created thing to be made—having in one year thrown away £120,000 on pictures, most of which were hardly worth the frames in which they were encased. The waste in decorative work at the whim of the Sultan is, or was, something lamentable. The



THE SULTAN'S PRINCIPAL PALACE, ON THE BOSPHORUS.

lady from whose valuable work these data are derived* gives a graphic picture of the foibles which possessed the Sultan Abdul Assiz towards the close of his life, when his intellect was occasionally clouded by insanity. The tints on the walls of the Begler-Bey palace and its furniture having slightly displeased him, he caused all to be removed and replaced by something different. When the Empress of the French visited him he ordered a fresh pair of slippers embroidered with pearls and precious stones to be placed before her bed every morning. Abdul Medjid had a similar craze

* "The People of Turkey," by a Consul's Daughter and Wife (1878), Vol. I., p. 243.

for building and upholstering palaces. Gilt decorations, gold and silver brocades, splendid mirrors and chandeliers, and carved and inlaid furniture meet the eye everywhere in his erections, though in his day clocks and china vases were the only ornament of the apartments. A splendid antique vase porcelain of value was thrown into the Bosphorus because it had been handled by some person afflicted with consumption. The Sultan having a nervous fear of fire, caused all inflammable articles to be taken out of the palace and replaced by others of the same character, but made of iron, and ordered all the fuel to be thrown into the Bosphorus. The houses in the neighbourhood of the palace were purchased by the Sultan, and the furniture turned out and the buildings pulled down. But all this extravagance does not end the cost of "the palace." Hundreds of people live at the cost of its chief tenant, getting their meals daily from his kitchen, though without any claim on his bounty. A hundred thousand pounds per annum did not pay the jewellers' bills in Abdul-Assiz's day, and if the harem ladies and their friends spent one pound they spent one hundred and sixty thousand every year on dresses, presents, &c. The mother, sisters, nephews, nieces, and other relatives of the Sultan absorbed another huge sum; while the building of new palaces and the repair of old ones required an expenditure so great that when added to the other outgoings of the privy purse, it need not be surprising that two millions have been found insufficient to pay for the Sultan's support. It ought to be added that these data refer not to the establishment of Abdul Hamid II., though so deeply rooted is the corruption of official life in Turkey that in spite of any desire which he may evince to bring about a better order of things, it is hardly possible that he will, unaided, succeed in this desirable ambition.

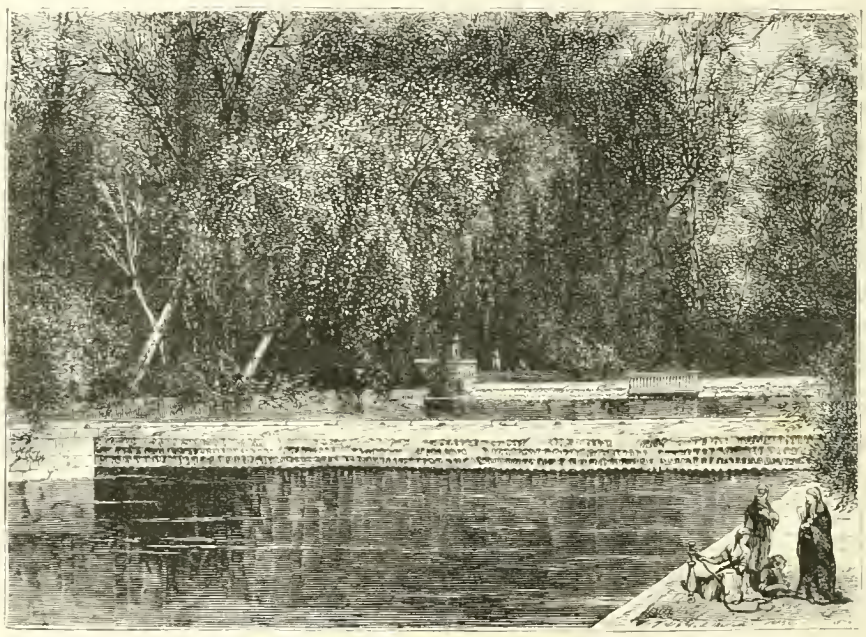
Land Tenure.

This varies in different parts of the empire; but generally it is held in four distinct ways. In the first place there are the "Mirie," or crown lands, the "Vakouf," or church property, the "Malikaneh," or crown grants, and the "Mulkh," or freehold. The Mirie include the private domains of the Sultan and royal family, the lands reserved for revenue purposes, and may be also considered to include the Malikaneh, or grants of land made to private individuals with a view to retaining their fidelity and military service, should the Government require to draw upon either for asserting its supremacy over the native princes, out of whose territory these grants had been made. Such a country was really settled on the feudal principle, and, as might be expected, was given over to almost unrestrained licence. So long as the Sultan got his revenue and his troops, the Pashas, Beys, and Beglerbeys might do what seemed good in their own eyes. These military tenure lands were tilled by the Rayahs, who had formerly owned them in freehold, and who were continually subjected to rack-renting and other extortions only too familiar to every country which has long experienced the Turkish rule. The exactions which the Christians endured were especially heavy. Theoretically, they were only required to pay their poll taxes and other impositions, which were apportioned by the Hodja-Bashi, or headman, in accordance with the means

of each individual, and a community was allowed to compound for its taxes by a fixed sum. In reality matters were not so satisfactory. The landlords were ever devising some means whereby they might extract more money from their tenants, and in brief, so unendurable became their lot, that many of them, in order to obtain some alleviation of it, abjured their faith in favour of that of the conquerors. This was the case extensively in Bosnia and Herzegovina, where a great concourse of military land-owners has grown up. Indeed, so powerful did they become, that means had to be taken to crush them and the Albanians, who had shown rebellious tendencies. By Turkish law any one can settle on unoccupied lands, and provided he pays taxes for twenty years, builds a house, cultivates the soil and lives on it, he can get a government title to his estate as mulkh, or freehold. Hence in Turkey large villages may be frequently met with, the inhabitants of which till the adjoining lands as "village property." The title is, owing to the following circumstance, rather complicated. After the squatter has settled on his ground he is granted the right of grazing a certain number of animals in proportion to the amount of his holding on the neighbouring waste lands. But if he cares he can always increase his estate by taking in portions of these lands, cultivating them, and paying the fees and tithes which the law demands; if other squatters, however, settle about him they have also the right of grazing on these waste places. Hence he cannot seize them, but must hold them as *mira*, or common soil. Thus in time as the village increases so does the *mira*. Hence *vakouf* or *mulkh* lands are the only ones which a foreigner desirous of getting a good title would think of buying. Vakouf land is property belonging to the mosques and to other religious and benevolent foundations. It is administered by the Evkaf, a department of State. It also includes property which in default of direct heirs of the last owner lapses to the Evkaf. But frequently it happens that a person so situated, to prevent the Vakouf property falling into the hands of the Evkaf, sells it to some one with direct heirs, or by the payment of certain government fees converts it into what is called *mulkieh*, which is really heritable property. Private property, or *mulkh*, is actual freehold. Colonel Baker explains that a new addition to the facilities of transfer of this kind of property has been enacted by which the mulkh can become "gedik." The owner of the mulk "sells it to a purchaser, reserving either to himself or to some one else a perpetual charge upon it. The purchaser receives under these circumstances a gedik title. The owner of the mulk may by the gedik title-deed either prescribe the manner in which the property shall descend, or he may put it out of his power to do so; but in the former case the Turkish Government reserves to itself the power of compelling the proprietor of the mulk to discharge this restriction on payment by the gedik of a fixed fee. It therefore comes to this: that the owner of a freehold estate or mulk can sell it, and at the same time encumber it with a perpetual charge, in which case the property ceases to be mulk, and becomes gedik. Gedik is, therefore, a species of mortgage."* Curiously enough, this class of lands is not large in Turkey, owing to the difficulty which the owner experiences in being certain that his title-deeds are not forged, substituted, destroyed, or otherwise manipulated. However, provided

* James Baker: "Turkey in Europe," p. 454.

a man is sure that he has a good title to his property, he is quite as safe in the possession of it as in any other part of the world. It is true that in the more out-of-the-way parts he runs a chance of being visited by brigands, and occasionally he may have trouble with the rayahs or tenants to whom he has rented part of it, or who have contracted to help him. But this feature of rural life is not peculiar to the dominions which own the rule of the Sultan. In Macedonia especially there are many Europeans—including Englishmen—who have not much reason to complain of their treatment either by the Government or by their neighbours; indeed, there are worse countries to emigrate to than Turkey. It is, of course, hardly a region in which a working man would feel himself



BY THE "SWEET WATERS OF EUROPE."

at home. The natives and he would not like each other; the conservative agricultural labourer would have a difficulty in reconciling his old ways of life to the new ones which he would require to adopt. But a man with brains and capital, or who has the strength and will to make his way, Colonel Baker thinks, might do well in Turkey. Land is at present cheap in districts into which railways have not penetrated, and labour is low if not abundant. The soil is good, crops tolerably certain, and if care be taken in the selections of the position, markets are good and available. "Taxation is heavy, but not oppressive. Life and property are secure in time of peace, and as secure as can be expected during war." Yet few Englishmen have succeeded in farming in Turkey, though many have tried. The chief cause of the failure has been insufficient capital and knowledge, and a desire to introduce systems of culture for which the country was not ripe, and, it may be added, the dull antiquated methods in which all business must be transacted. Indeed, in a Turkish Government Department

circumlocution attains its maximum, as a hundred ludicrous tales could easily demonstrate. The following amusing sketch, which we extract from the correspondence of the *Köln Zeitung*, may, however, suffice as an example, and that it is not an unduly exaggerated specimen of the way in which the public service is attended to in Turkey, any one who has had any experience of that country will be willing to allow. It may be remembered that the different European States have each their own postal

THE SULTAN AT THE MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA.

establishment in the Turkish capital. The German office there, however, performs the postal service not only for subjects of the Emperor William, but also for the Turks themselves. The Turk is well known to be a lover of ceremony, and how little this feature contributes to the dispatch of business may be gathered from the following account of an incident of frequent occurrence at the German Post-office at Pera. In London or any city of Western Europe the transaction would be concluded in half a dozen words. In Stamboul this sample transaction assumes the following form:—A turbaned Ottoman, approaching the pigeon-hole of the post-office, bows repeatedly to the official, and laying his right hand on his breast, exclaims, 'May the noble morning be fortunate for you, sir!' Official, returning the salutation,

inquires 'What is your pleasure?' 'Thy servant desires a few stamps—postage stamps—in order to send letters to Europe. My son, Abdullah Effendi, glass merchant, of Ak Serai, has travelled to London, and his family wishes to write to him. I myself, indeed, do not possess the accomplishment of writing; but a relative, the grandson of my first wife's great uncle, the great pipe-bowl manufacturer of Tophane, is master of that art, and he will pen the epistle for us.' 'Very good, and how many stamps do you want, sir?' 'Ah, my jewel, how many do I require? One, I suppose, will not be sufficient, for he will not return yet for four weeks; so give me two.' 'Very good; here they are—two and a half piastres.' 'What is that thou sayest, my lamb? Two piastres is what I used to give some years back when Abdullah was previously in London. Wait, it was ——' 'Quite right, Effendim; but since then the fee has been altered and the price is now greater.' 'Is it so, apple of my eye? The price is greater, alas! alas!' Herewith the Turk pulls out a roll of notes, on seeing which the official exclaims, 'No, my diamond; no! We take no paper money here; you must pay in silver.' 'Eh, what? You take no paper? Why not? Surely it is good money of the Padishah, in whose realm you are! Well, well, I will give you hard money. I have with me some in copper.' 'No, Effendim,' rejoins the official, 'we don't take copper either; you must pay in silver.' 'Silver? By my head, I have none! Do me the kindness of taking copper, I will pay you the *agio*.' 'Impossible, Effendim, I am not allowed to take it.' 'Well, what am I to do, then, my son?' 'Go to the money-changer, he is sitting there in the corner.' 'Ah me, it is very hot; won't you really take copper?' 'I cannot under any circumstances.' 'Very well, then, you shall have silver. Here it is!' 'Thanks!' This part of the business being concluded, the Turk asks, 'When will the letter be sent off?' 'First tell me, father, when do you intend to write?' 'Oh, to-day; as soon as I get back from the fish market, whither I must first go, I will have the letter written.' 'Then it will be dispatched in the morning if you bring it here before two o'clock this afternoon.' 'Excellent; and when will the answer come back?' 'Well, Effendim, that will depend on when your son posts his reply.' 'Writes his reply, my lamb; why, what are you thinking of, he will do it at once, of course! Do you suppose he will keep his father waiting?' 'Very well; in that case the answer will arrive quickly; you may perhaps get it in ten days.' 'Bravo! bravo! Then I will come back in ten days' time. Good-bye! May Allah lengthen thy shadow, my heart.' 'Good-bye, sir, and may thy beard luxuriantly flourish.'"

It must be allowed that the Turks are a ceremonious race, but a leisurely one. They are even less in a hurry than the Spaniards, who, in being also fallen from a high place on the roll of conquerors and wielders of empire, somewhat resemble them. The Ministers in Constantinople are equally impressed with the idea that time is of no object. In diplomacy they have the art of waiting, and excel the craftiest of European State tricksters in devising excuses whereby days, weeks, months, and years can be put between a promise and its performance.

CHAPTER II.

The Turkish Empire: Turkey Proper.

Under the name of "Turkey in Europe" might formerly have been comprised the whole of the peninsula south of the Balkan range of mountains (p. 20)—or, in other words, between the Adriatic and the Black Sea. But, as we have seen, the hold which the Osmanli Turks got on this region in the fifteenth century has been rapidly loosening. The States nearest Europe—for Turkey, though in Europe, is not of it—have ceased in some cases to be even tributary in name, while others have become only nominally dependent on Constantinople. Thus it so happens that though Turkey in Europe is the most important part of the Sultan's dominions it is only the one twenty-fifth part of his empire. In all it contains about 80,000 square miles. Eastern Roumelia, Bulgaria, Bosnia, and Herzegovina —the two last at present in the occupation of Austria—make up another 66,000 square miles of the peninsula, while Servia, Montenegro, and the petty territory of Spitza, which is held by Austria, comprise the remaining 22,000 square miles of the region. Its area, therefore, is not much short of being twice that of Great Britain, its length from north to south being 400 miles, and its breadth from east to west 500 miles. No land could be more favourably situated for commerce. On one side it has harbours in the Adriatic and Ionian Sea, on the south the Ægean and the Sea of Marmora border it, while the Black Sea, which laves its eastern shores, and into which flows the great highway of the Danube, has made it the envy of the countries lying in its vicinity. The capital, situated at the narrowest point of the strait which connects the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, has thus a position as commanding as any in the world, and altogether exceptional among cities. We shall return by-and-by to the Balkan Peninsula; but meantime it may be as well to glance briefly at its general features. The country on the southern bank of the Danube rises by a gentle slope, thinly dotted with dwarf oaks, until the rounded summit of the Balkan range is reached, though between the northern end of the river and the Black Sea intervenes the grassy covered or swampy plateau, treeless and bushless, which of late years has been familiar to newspaper readers under the name of Dobrudja. The Balkans themselves formed the landward barrier of Turkey prior to the war of 1877–8. The Sultan has only the right of garrisoning their passes in special emergencies, but their main range, and its ramifications throughout the peninsula, give the most marked character which is possessed by the peninsula wholly, or in part, ruled by him. From the iron gates of the Danube to Cape Emineh, on the Black Sea, the range winds across the country parallel with the Danube, the Kodja Balkan, 5,900 feet high, being the loftiest portion of the range. But most of the country to the southward is mountainous; the spurs either taking the direction of the west coast, or, uniting with the Illyrian mountain ramifications, continue their network into Greece. The slopes of these mountains are often wooded, with naked or white peaks, shutting in among high

plateaux or grassy meadows. Some of the summits, like the Dormitor in Herzegovina, rise to 8,860 feet, while Mount Kom, on the border of Montenegro, is usually given at 9,350 feet above the Adriatic. But the coast range of Thessaly, rising abruptly above the Ægean, is much loftier still. In it is the classical Pelion, 5,130 feet high, the equally familiar Ossa, 5,250 feet, with which it is ever linked, and the still more famous Olympus, on which the gods were fabled to reside at the chilly elevation of 9,750 feet above the sea. The Rhodope Heights, covered with oak, beech, fir, and larch, form a dense mass between

ALBANIAN PEASANTS.

the southern slope of the Balkans and the coasts of the Ægean. The general elevation of this plateau-like sea of mountains is 7,000 feet, but at the point where they unite in the centre of the country with the other ranges named, the pine-clad Rilo Dagh rises to the height of 9,840 feet, an elevation which, even in this latitude, only admits of the summit being clear of snow during a few weeks in the summer. In the peninsula of Khalkis the range is remarkable for its three prongs, on one of which is Mount Athos, 6,350 feet in height, celebrated for the number of Greek monasteries on it. Between the Gulf of Istillar and the Gulf of Monte Santo, Xerxes cut a canal, in order to avoid the stormy navigation round the cape. Another noted peninsula is that between the Sea of Marmora and the Gulf of Saros, on which is built Gallipoli, the fortress

which commands the middle of the Dardanelles or Hellespont, and forms the entrance to the Sea of Marmora from the Mediterranean. The high islands of Thaso and Samothraki, or Samothrace, and Imbro are passed, however, in the sea intervening between these two peninsulas, though the latter, at which, it may be remembered, St. Paul touched on his way to Macedonia, is included in the government of Turkey in Asia, a circumstance due to some bureaucratic whim, since Crete, or Candia, on which is Mount Ida, belongs to the European part of the empire, in spite of its lying much farther south in the Ægean. The rivers which fall into the Adriatic Mr. Johnston characterises, in his synopsis of the geography of this region, as of little value, "except for their mill-driving powers and for floating timber down from the hills" and plateau of the western region in which they rise. The Salambria, which drains into the Ægean the surplus waters of the plain of Thessaly through the valley between Olympus and Ossa, is, however, navigable, and the Vardar, which falls into the Gulf of Salonica, is even larger. However, next to the Danube, which is the great highway of the north, the Maritza, which, after watering the plain of Thrace, and being navigable for most part of the year as far as Adrianople, eighty miles above its mouth, falls into the sea at Dediagale, west of the Gulf of Enos, is the chief river of European Turkey.

Climate.

The climate of a region so broken up by mountain chains cannot fail to be varied. In the land-locked western valleys the summer heats are well nigh unendurable, while the upland plains and heights, being altogether unprotected from the icy blasts which sweep southward from the snow-covered plains of Russia, are in the winter bitterly cold. For several months in the year the Danube is more or less completely frozen over, and there is no spring until April. May is hot, July hotter still, and, in addition, disagreeable for travelling, owing to the storms and floods caused by the rains and melting snows. The autumn is, however, fine, and as a rule the climate of Turkey is agreeable, and worthy of all the eulogies which the more sober-minded of the many poets who have celebrated it have been pleased to bestow on the "land of the myrtle and olive." The autumn is in all parts of the country pleasant, and south of the Balkans, and along the Albanian slope, the winter temperature is comparatively warm, and the spring in full vigour by the month of March. So mild is the coldest month here that the myrtle lives through the winter, and the orange, olive, and mulberry thrive in the soft air and fertile soil of the Turkish valleys. Maize is so extensively grown in the south that in Italy it is known as Turkish corn; rice, rye, barley, and cotton grow wild in the central parts of the country, and millet is found as a common crop in the north. Pine, beech, oak, lime, and all the fruits of temperate countries, flourish through its entire extent, and south of the Balkans maple, almond, sycamore, and walnut succeed. Olives, oranges, and fruit that requires a sub-tropical climate thrive in Albania. The dwarf palm attains its northern limits on the shores of the Mediterranean and in the valley of the Maritza. The rose-fields for making the celebrated attar of roses are about the most attractive features of the country. The climate of the shores of the

Ægean is especially enjoyable. But the Black Sea still bears the evil winter reputation it did when Ovid bewailed his sad lot as an exile on its shores. The terrors of a Crimean winter will not soon be forgotten in England; and even as far south as Constantinople the Bosphorus is occasionally frozen when some months of more than ordinary severity is experienced. During the autumn many of the low-lying plains are unhealthy, owing to malarious fevers, which are always more fatal to foreigners than to the natives. They are especially prevalent during July, August, and September, though even then only on the plains, which for the rest of the year are healthy. Colonel Baker describes them as akin to ague. They begin by shivering; then the hot stage comes on, and after that profuse perspiration, when the patient feels as well as ever; but two or three days afterwards he is again down for twenty-four hours, and in the case of people of feeble constitution is sometimes altogether disabled from work.

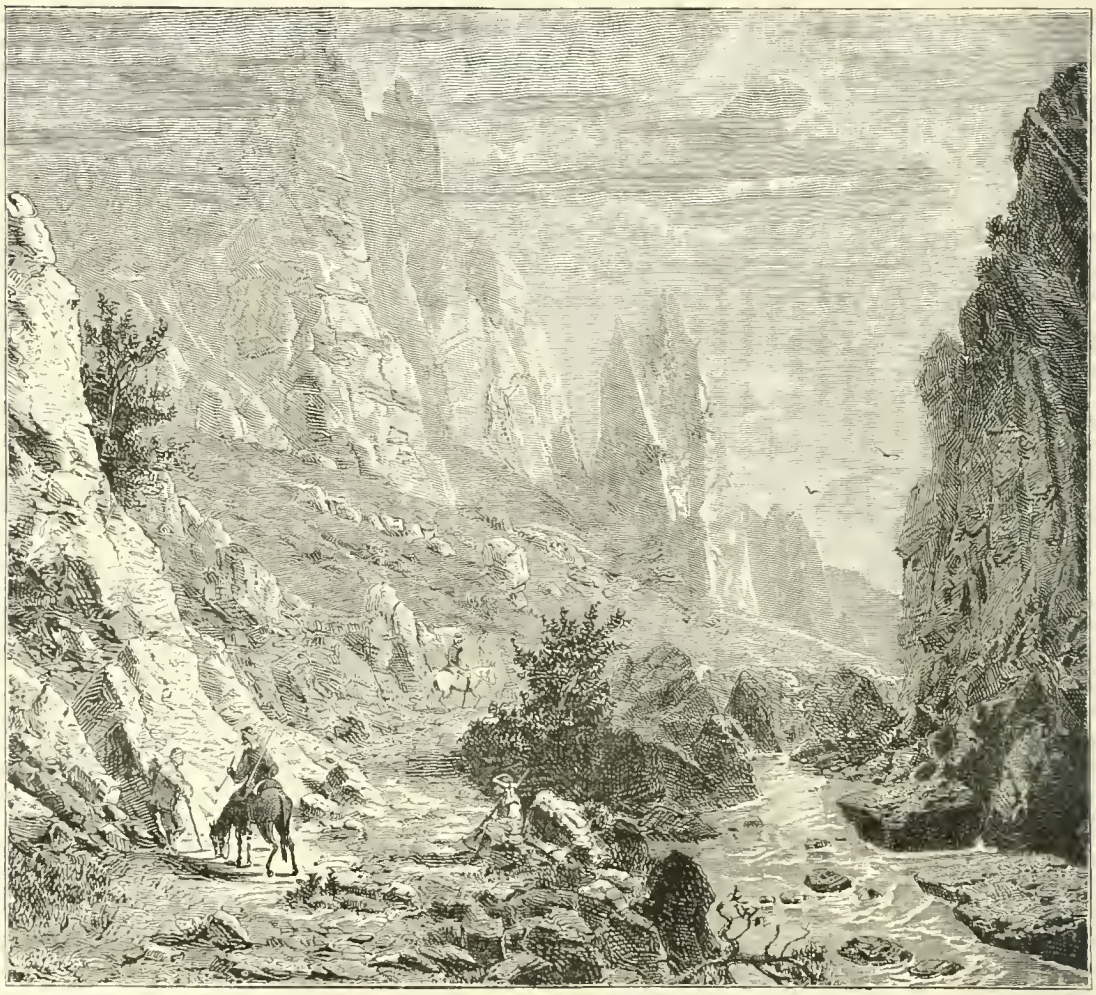
The People.

The strange conglomeration of races which make up the population of European Turkey we have already indicated. In perhaps no other part of the world is there such a mixture of people and religions. Asiatic Turks, Græco-Latins and Greeks, Slavs, Jews, and so forth, all rub shoulders with each other in Constantinople, though in the other parts of the country the different nationalities and faiths keep rather more apart. The Osmanli, or ruling race, constitute only about one-sixth of the people of the Balkan Peninsula. The Greeks number even fewer, but in energy and business capacity they are the most important of all its races whose heritage was seized by the Asiatic hordes of Mohammed II. In the south they are the chief people, and round the Ægean to Constantinople the population is largely infused with them, though, excepting in Thessaly and Epirus, and in the town of Salonica and some other large places, the Bulgarians, and their admixtures with Thracian and Slavonic stocks, constitute the prevailing ethnic elements. The Greek Church in Constantinople at one time dominated the Bulgarians, and this fact has perhaps led to the common mistake in putting the true Greeks of Turkey at a much higher figure than they can really claim. Urbicini estimates the number at 2,000,000, but Colonel Baker is perhaps nearer the truth when he considers that, excluding Thessaly, Epirus, and the islands, there are not more than half a million in the empire, and that these are chiefly found in Constantinople and its vicinity, or among the large towns on the coast and the interior. The Turks style all the Greeks "Roum," or Romans, just as the Central Asiatic people use the same term to express the European dominions of the Sultan. In truth, the Greeks in Turkey are in many cases of purer Hellenic blood than their brethren in the kingdom of Greece. The early Greeks who settled in Asia still remain there, and the Phanariotes, or Turkish Greeks, can date their occupation of the soil from the earliest period of the founding of Byzantium by the Western emperors. The ancient Greeks might have been of Slavonian, Italian, or Egyptian blood, or, as Latham thinks, of all three combined. Be that as it may, the overrunning of the country by Persians, Goths, Huns, Vandals, Bulgarians, Venetians, and Turks has put purity of blood, especially in the people inhabiting the sea-coast towns, almost out of the question. There may be in the

remote interior Greeks of the old classic type; but the Hellenes of the country in the line of commerce and conquest are the countrymen of Achilles and Socrates only in name. The ancient Greeks of Turkey resembled the modern ones in this respect, that when not distracted by war they did not spread over the country, but settled down in the localities best fitted for commerce. This policy was not a wise one. It left the Greeks isolated little communities, and therefore incapable of exercising much political influence on their more numerous but less intelligent neighbours; and though afterwards recognising this mistake, they tried to Hellenicise the Bulgarians through the instrumentality of the Church, the attempt proved such a failure that at the present time the antagonism of the Greeks and Bulgars is so intense as to prevent Turkey from ever attaining the position of a homogeneous nation, or, no matter who eventually governs it, becoming aught but a number of petty principalities. The dream of a new Byzantine empire is, therefore, apart from the opposition which the movement would evoke among the Slavs, unhappily never likely to be realised so long as the present enmity of the Bulgarian population of Turkey continues so bitter against the Greeks. A Greek Church for the Christian people of Turkey is not a prospect to which they would calmly submit; they would prefer the religious toleration of the Mohammedan Turks, who, looking on all faiths other than that of the Prophet with equal contempt, permits any one, or all of them combined, about the same amount of freedom.

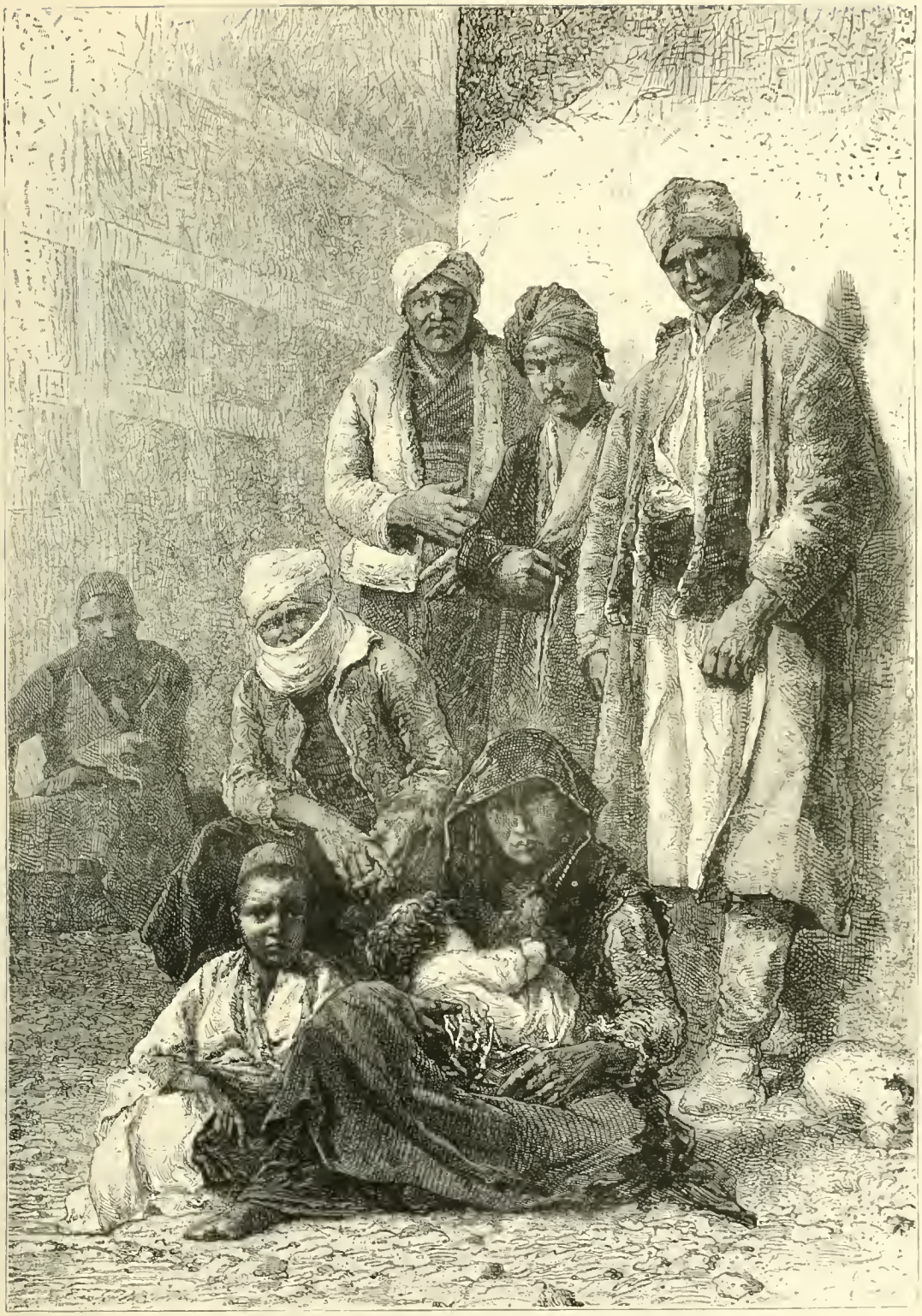
But meantime, while George of Denmark is awaiting the time when he can become Basileus of all the Greeks, his subjects have a very substantial compensation for their political inferiority in their commercial superiority. As traders, the Hellenes know no masters, and in the "tricks" which have been associated with commerce since the days of the classical satirists the Levantine has little to learn. There is a vulgar proverb, well known in the Mediterranean countries, to the effect that one Armenian can outwit two Jews, and one Greek two Armenians; and the French term for a rogue and an Athenian being the same, this exceeding sharpness of the "Grec" is substantially recognised. The "Greek guile" consists mainly in great industry, energy, and acuteness, in preferring to "do" rather than in being "done," and in reaping the rewards which the listless, lazy races around them envy, but have neither the ability nor the nerve to grasp. They are not very truthful, but that is not a marked feature in the Christian character in the East. They are also vain, envious, and jealous, but these unpleasant features are not peculiar to them. But they are full of enterprise. A Bulgarian peasant's family is rooted to the soil. A Greek peasant, on the contrary, encourages his children to leave their native farm and seek their fortune abroad. This, of course, has its disadvantages combined with its merits. "If a respectable country farmer has a son, he is not brought up to look after his business, but is packed off to Athens to be educated out of it. He is naturally clever—all Greeks are—and takes a fair degree at the University, and then aims at being either a doctor, lawyer, or politician. Now the demand for doctors and lawyers is limited, that of politicians is not so; the consequence is that Athens is flooded with a set of young aspirants, each of whom thinks he is destined to be Prime Minister and to re-establish the Byzantine Empire. This would be a laudable ambition, and do no harm, if it were not for the

extraordinary amount of energy in the Greek character. Each young aspirant immediately sets vigorously to work to satisfy his ambition; but unfortunately each wishes to do it precisely in his own way, and no other. The consequence is that there are almost as many political parties in the State as there are politicians, and the work of



VIEW IN THE BALKANS.

an energetic Government is hampered as much as it can possibly be. By-and-by the peasant farmer will die, and the country farm will be uncultivated and unproductive, while the son is making speeches and losing money." In brief, the Greek is, according to the all but universal opinion of those who know him, "over ambitious, conceited, too diplomatic and wily, and, in common with most merchants, European or Eastern, in Turkey, he does his best to cheat the Turks, and occasionally extends the practice further, not without excellent precedent." These qualities, it is even charitable to assume, are "the vices of a race long kept in servitude, and now awakening to the



BULGARIANS.

sense of a great ancestry." Some of them are as primeval as the Greeks themselves, and afford one of the best proofs that the Hellenes have not altogether lost their ancient qualities while becoming possessed of some new ones not much more admirable. The Greeks of Turkey, however, differ much among themselves. Those of the Black Sea shores are, for example, more Oriental and infinitely filthier than their brethren on the Macedonian frontier. But after making every allowance for their indifference to dirt and discomfort, and discounting their good qualities by all that can be brought against them, it is undeniable that the Turkish Greek is a hospitable, intelligent, and progressive personage, and in abilities, as well as in the capabilities for rule, is not to be mentioned in the same day with any of the other races of the Ottoman Empire.

The Albanians (p. 16), who occupy the western central highlands in the direction of the Adriatic, number perhaps a million and a quarter, and are supposed to be the descendants of the ancient Illyrians, a people of Græco-Latin origin. By the Turks they are known as Arnauts, though they call themselves Skipetars, and are furthermore divided into various bands distinguished by different names. Owing to the almost inaccessible character of the country, the wildness of the mountain valleys and gorges, and the want of roads, Albania is little known, and the people, though brave to excess, are rude, unlettered, and addicted to brigandage. Most of the great landowners are Mohammedans, though the majority of the peasantry are Christians. The country life is still to a great extent feudal, but far from possessing the best features of feudalism. The peasantry are crushed, not by one Pasha or Bey, but by a legion of petty tyrants, who, almost without check, go to any excess in their eagerness to extract as much as possible out of them. "Skiperi," or the land of rocks, very completely expresses the characteristics of the country. Upper Albania is less known than Lower Albania, which is also not so wild and rugged in appearance. But in no part of the country is agriculture otherwise than at a low ebb. The valleys are fertile, but only half cultivated or pastured by scanty droves of horses, sheep, and oxen. Grain is nevertheless extensively grown in some sections of the country, and a coarse kind of silk is in Dibra manufactured into tissues used for the "elaborate embroidery of the picturesque national costume." The capas, or stout cloaks, are made out of cloth woven from Albanian wool, and, in addition, red leather and other minor articles are fabricated among the mountains of Illyrian Albania. In Lower Albania, or Epirus, the country is better cultivated, owing to the milder climate. Cotton, olives, tobacco, oranges, citrons, grapes, and cochineal are among its exports. The mines, which abound in the mountains, might, if worked, yield great wealth; but the ignorance of the people and the difficulties of transport have hitherto interfered with the development of this source of Turkish wealth. In some of the loveliest of the valleys hot springs possessing great medicinal qualities are found, but the "Consul's wife" tells us that the country people are quite ignorant of the uses to which they might be applied, and take the waters indiscriminately for any ailment they might happen to have, and in obedience to the old superstitious reverence of the spirits of the fountains, even drink from different sources, in the hope of gaining favour with their respective nymphs.

The Bulgarians (p. 21) inhabit the country from the south side of the Danube up to and over the Balkans, to the limits of the Greek and Turkish districts of the coast of the

Ægean, and comprise a great proportion of the inhabitants of Eastern Roumelia, which was erected by the Congress of Berlin into a separate principality under a Lieutenant of the Sultan, and the whole of Bulgaria proper, which is altogether autonomous, though recognising the Sultan as the suzerain of its prince. The people number about 2,500,000, but are not of Slavonic origin, as has been often asserted. In reality, the Bulgars are of Mongolian descent, and only arrived in the country they now occupy in the sixth century, finding it, however, occupied by a race of Slav blood, with whom they speedily amalgamated, adopting at the same time their language and customs, though with such an admixture of their own habits and tongue as to give the Bulgars the characteristics which they have since maintained, viz., a Finnish graft on a Slavonic stock. North of the Balkans the women are handsome and coquettish; south of that range they are ugly but well behaved. Indeed, in the latter region so dark are they that they might pass for Finns. In early time we hear of the Bulgarians as a warlike race, whose country was the cock-pit of Turkey. Sometimes they even approached so near Constantinople that the prize of empire seemed within their reach. But they never obtained it, and in time the hope of ever doing so faded away, as the waning power of the Greek Emperor became replaced by the Crescent influence of the Turks from the other side of the Hellespont. Finally, in 1396, the rout of the picked troops of France and Hungary by the forces of Bayazid shivered the last hope of the Bulgarians. Henceforward they became Turkish subjects, and furnished their quota of youth to be educated into being their oppressors under the dread name of Janissaries. In little more than half a century later Constantinople fell, and with it their old Greek rivals. Hereafter, the Bulgarians disappeared as a nation, never to rise until modern times, and even to be effaced at a period when the Greeks, inferior to them in numbers, were successfully asserting their ancient independence. This, however, aided by Russia, they did with well-known effect in 1877, and could most probably have done much sooner had they not, at an early date in the history of their conquest, lost their leaders by the secession of the principal part of their nobility to the Mohammedan faith and the enemy, while the Greeks never entirely abandoned their ancient hierarchy, and, moreover, were entrusted by the Turks with a large share in the government of their country. Some years prior to their political emancipation, the Bulgarians threw off the ecclesiastical control of the Greeks, and, though still professing the tenets of the Greek Church, they have an independent patriarch and organisation, and their schools are equally national in teaching and organisation. The present Bulgarian Principality, under Prince Alexander I., is largely under Russian control, and it may therefore be still a moot question whether the ancient national life of the Bulgars is revived, except as a political makeshift, until South-eastern Europe is again disturbed. The Slav races proper of geographical Turkey comprise the two millions of Servians, Bosnians, Herzegovinians, Croats, and Montenegrins of the north-western highlands. Scattered through the country are also great numbers of Circassians, who emigrated thither in 1864, after the Caucasus was conquered by Russia, Armenians, who run rivalry with the Greeks as sharp traders wherever profit is to be made, Gypsies, who live all over the country in a wild nomadic condition, and Jews, who, however, like the Gypsies, more affected Roumania and the country north of the Danube, and bear an indifferent reputation for honesty and all the cardinal

virtues. In addition, large numbers of the Crimean Tatars, or Tartars, settled in the Dobrudja at the close of the Crimean War, and are gradually spreading from the Danube mouth westward into the interior. They only number about 200,000 people, but as they are industrious, quiet, peaceable agriculturists, their immigration has been of advantage to the country and to Roumania, who, by the Treaty of Berlin, was forced to accept the Dobrudja in exchange for Bessarabia.

TURKISH BEY, OF BITLESS, KURDISTAN.

The religions of Turkey are, however, not quite so numerous as its races. The Bulgarians, Albanians, and Servians—speaking of them not as nations but as races—are, to a considerable extent, Mohammedans, the ruling classes having at an early period "turned Turk," to escape the oppression of the conqueror. Of course, the Osmanlis are all Moslems, though very few of the Greeks are, and none of the Jews. As for the Gypsies, they are of almost any faith. The Bosnians are mostly Christians, albeit in the north-west the nobles early became perverts to save their lands, and, like the Albanians, are fanatical followers of the Prophet. The adherents of the Greek Church recognise the authority of the Patriarch of Constantinople. The Armenians are divided in their allegiance. Some of them acknowledge the ecclesiastical supremacy of the Armenian Patriarch, while the United or Catholic Armenians are faithful to the Pope of Rome.

Resources, etc.

Turkey, we have thus seen, is a land of great resources but of little enterprise, and what little there is, the Government does everything to discourage. The country could be one of the greatest exporters of agricultural produce in Europe, but, nevertheless, little more land is cultivated than is sufficient to grow food for the people, and though mines of great wealth are known to exist, they are not worked, owing to the lack of capital in the country,

or from want of confidence on the part of the capitalists out of it. Woollen cloths, carpets, ropes, silk, arms, and other minor industries, supply the main outlets of the people's industry, but until roads are more generally made, are not likely to be much extended. The financial condition of the country is at present so deplorable that the prospect of more railways being built seems scant. Since 1865 upwards of a thousand miles of lines have been laid down, much to the advantage of commerce, and also, it must be allowed, not a little to the convenience of the invaders who have since that date descended on the valleys of "Roum." *Politically*, Turkey has not been markedly improving, for the governing class have remained not widely different from what they always were, but in other respects the country cannot be said to be going backward.

KURDISH HUNTER.

Stamboul, or Constantinople, as it is more generally called, is a poorer though a finer city than it was when the Grand Turk did as was good in his own eyes, imprisoned Ambassadors, and conducted himself with extreme hauteur towards the rest of the world. It now contains over 600,000 inhabitants, and under more favourable circumstances ought, from its commanding position, to be one of the greatest commercial centres in the world. In 1878, 22,904 ships of every description visited its port, their tonnage aggregating 6,809,243 tons. Of these, the greatest number of vessels were Greek, Italian, and Austrian, but in size and importance the English vessels were out of all proportion to those of any other five nations (pp. 5, 9, 12, 13, and Plate LI.).

The city proper is built on the Golden Horn—a narrow arm of the Bosphorus—which affords accommodation for ships of the largest size, and bridges across the Golden Horn lead to Pera and Galata, which are more especially the European quarters. Here reside the foreign Ambassadors and the principal merchants; but, of late years, the little steamers on the Bosphorus have afforded such facility for travel, that suburban villas have sprung up all along the shores as far as Boyukdere, where there are erected the fortifications to guard the Black Sea entrance of the Strait. In some of these villages, or on the islands, are charming marine residences and palaces of the Pashas, or the Sultan and his family.

Among the other cities of Turkey Salonica ranks after the capital. It contains from 60,000 to 80,000 inhabitants, devoted to the export of grain, wool, silk, and tobacco. Adrianople, with about the same population, is the meeting-place of agriculturists and traders of the Valley of Thrace. Seraïevo, Philippopolis, Prisrendi, Prishtina, Janina, Trikhala, and Larissa are all towns of more or less importence and trade. Crete, sadly misgoverned though it has been in the past, and often as it has been devastated by civil war, is one of the most pleasant of the Turkish islands. Olive groves, vineyards, and fruit-trees are found everywhere. But its staple product is olive oil, which is exported in large quantities. The people, whom the ancient proverb of "one of your own people" —to wit, Epimenides—stigmatised as "liars," are essentially Greek, and for long the Greek tongue has been spoken alike by Moslems and Christians. Candia, a town founded on the northern coast by the Saracens, is the largest place in the island, but Canea is the best port. Crete seems inevitably destined to become part of the kingdom with which it is so closely connected by the common kinship of race. Indeed, the loosely-welded fragments of the Turkish Empire seems rapidly flying asunder, and were it not that the process is retarded by international jealousies, and the difficulty of putting anything more convenient in the place of the disrupted Empire, the process could be easily accelerated.

Turkey, as the last war proved, is nevertheless by no means a weak power. Its ruling class are corrupt to the core, but its people are possessed of many good qualities; among which patience, courage, and the capacity of bearing privation without murmuring are not the least. Properly disciplined, fed, armed, and led, the Mussulman soldiers of Turkey are equal to those of any Christian power. The ancient fanaticism of their fathers may be wanting in the majority of them, but they still fight valiantly for their faith, and, buoyed up with the certain hope of passing over Al Serât, the hair bridge, direct into Jannat Aden—the Abodes of Eternal Delight—the Osmanli reckons his life as nothing when pitted against the rewards with which he shall be paid for its temporary loss.

The Turkish nation is swamped in debt. It would, nevertheless, be unjust to them not to mention that they have something very substantial to show for the expenditure, albeit, it may be questioned whether that something is not more of an evil than a good to a poor people. They have five ironclads, in addition to a number of other vessels, and would undoubtedly have had a great many more if the Glasgow ship-builders had not been possessed with the Western prejudice against unlimited credit.

During the last war, from 1875 to 1878, the Turks had altogether in the field 752,000 men, though at the close of it not more than 120,000 were on the active list. The remainder were either dead—of the sword or of disease—or in captivity. Out of the material at his disposal, Osman Pasha has reorganised the shattered forces of the Sultan. The result is a fairly equipped army of 150,000, the cost of which, in spite of all kinds of small economy, is ruinously heavy on the Turkish exchequer. But such is the condition of the country, that were the garrisons less in disaffected districts, civil war, revolution, and anarchy must inevitably be precipitated. Altogether, it is calculated that with the reserve, or "redifs," corresponding to the German "Landwehr," the irregular troops, or Bashi-Bazouks, and the "Moustafiz," or militia, it would still be possible to put 600,000 men into the field in case of emergency.

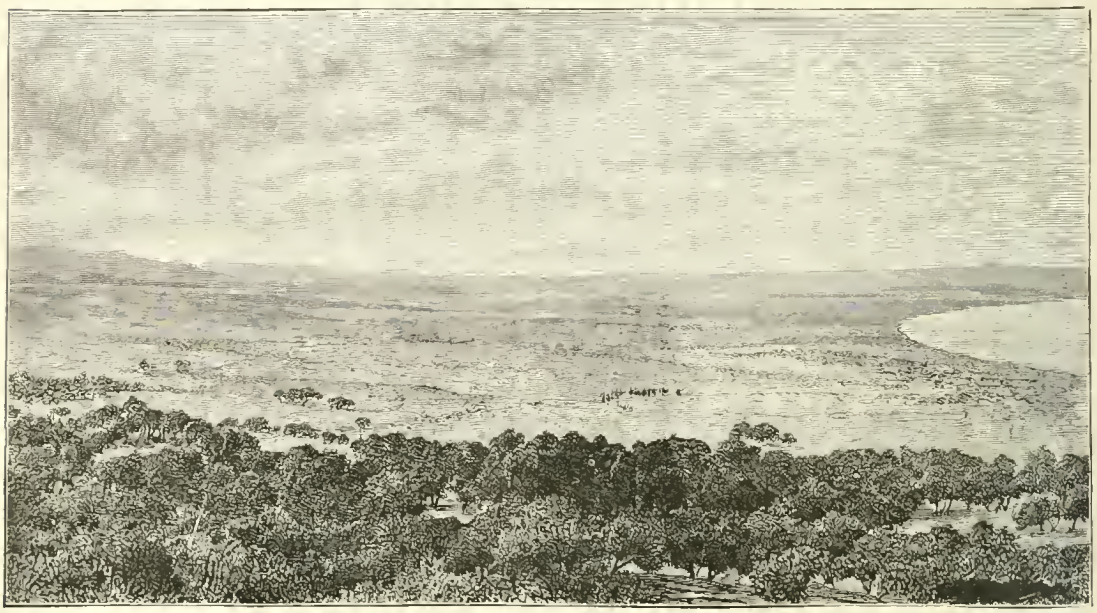
CHAPTER III.

The Turkish Empire: Asiatic Turkey.

Leaving Europe, into which we had temporarily to step, in pursuit of an Asiatic race, who have here established their head-quarters, we again visit Asia, and are still within the dominions of the Sultan of Turkey. In truth, Turkey in Asia comprises the whole western portion of that quarter of the world. In addition, it is one of the portions of Asia most irregular in outline, the parallel ranges of the Taurus and Anti-Taurus, which form the radiating point of nearly all the mountain system of this wide region, covering with their numerous ramifications Anatolia or Asia Minor, and converting the country into a series of "elevated plateaux, deep valleys, and enclosed plains." The Lebanon chain runs parallel to the coast of Syria, and terminates near the Red Sea in the famous Mount of Sinai. Asia Minor, Armenia, and Kurdistan are mountainous throughout. Mesopotamia, Babylonia, and most part of Arabia, consist of level plains. Syria, Palestine, the Hejaz, or Turkish part of Arabia, in which Jeddah and Mecca are situated, and Yemen may be described as hills and mountains bordering the sea.

In Asia Minor, Armenia, and Kurdistan, Ararat, 16,969 feet above the sea level, is the greatest elevation. But with the exception of numerous valleys the region is really one vast series of plateaux and mountains, the country rapidly rising from the shores of the Black Sea, until, at an elevation of a few thousand feet, it becomes clothed with fine forests of hard wood. On the east it will attain a height of 9,000 feet, but towards the west it falls to the northward, the only special elevation being little over this height. Glaciers are nurtured in the range, but the whole plateau bears evidence of volcanic action, and is covered with extinct volcanic cones, lakes of salt, and brackish water without outlets to the sea. The plains of Mesopotamia, Babylonia, and Arabia, do not rise to more than 2,000 feet above the sea, the only elevations of any consequence being those which bisect the plain in direction from north-east to south-west. Syria, Palestine, and the other districts which have been conjoined with it in the description, consist, according to Mr. Johnston, who has carefully analysed their geography, of two longitudinal belts, one with a slightly westerly trend bordering the Mediterranean, and the other with an easterly trend bordering the Red Sea. Mount Lebanon is more than 10,000 feet high, while Mount Hermon is 9,383, and Mount Hor, or Zebel Harän, rises to about 4,000 feet. The coast range terminates near Mecca in a peak rumoured to be nearly 14,000 feet high, and throughout Yemen the mountains are said to attain an elevation of 6,000 feet. But, of this country, owing to the fanatical character of the population, we know little, and nothing accurately. The Tigris, the Euphrates, and the Orontes, are the most important rivers of Turkish Asia, but numerous others intersect nearly every portion of it. Immediately north

of Besika Bay is the famous Scamander, the Mendere Su of the Moderns, which rises in Mount Ida and flows through the plains of Troy. The Gediz (Hermus), traversing in the first part of its course a dreary volcanic desert, falls into the Bay of Smyrna, after watering, for the latter portion of its run of 200 miles, the pleasant vale of Kassaba, and the Kutchuk Mendere, or Cayster, debouches from its fine valley near the ruins of Ephesus. But, like most of the other rivers of this region, if brings down so much silt as to render its mouth almost useless for the purposes of navigation, and to cause the old towns which stood on the coast to be in many cases some way back into the interior. The Kizil-Irmak, the Buyuk-Mendere, Khoja Chai, and the Sakaria, may also be mentioned among the other famous rivers of Turkish Asia. The Jordan is, of course, the most celebrated



VIEW IN THE PLAIN OF LATAKIA, IN SYRIA.

river of Palestine, and like the Abana and Pharpar, "rivers of Damascus," flows into the Dead Sea, after having stimulated into fertility the arid plains through which they flow, and, as in the case of the two latter rivers, by means of artificial irrigating channels raised the "verdant paradise of fruit and flowers around" the Old World City which will be for ever associated with their names. The lakes of the region are numerous and of some interest. Lake Van has a length of eighty miles, and lies in a hollow some 5,000 feet above the sea. It is quite salt, but though it has no outlet its waters are bright and clear like the sea. Fish abound in it, and great flocks of water-fowl frequent its shores, attracted by the abundant food and mild climate. Rude barges navigate it, though during the coldest months of the year ice forms on its surface. Tuz Göl is another large salt lake of Asia Minor, but the Sea of Galilee, or Tiberias, thirteen miles long, and 653 feet above the level of the Mediterranean, and the Dead Sea, 1,292 feet below the Mediterranean, are the most remarkable and interesting of these curious sheets of water. The latter is forty-

six miles long, and is the deepest lake basin in the world. Its shores consist of lofty cliffs, rising almost perpendicularly, and unbroken by a single outlet for the surplus waters of the lake, which are kept down solely by evaporation. It is so intensely salt and dense that the body will not sink it, and owing to the bitumen springs in and about it its waters are exceedingly nauseous to the taste and smell. Along its shores desolation and barrenness prevail. No cultivation is seen—nothing but sulphur, rock-salt, lava, and pumice; hence the fitting name of Bahr Lût, or Dead Sea, which from time immemorial it has obtained from the inhabitants of the surrounding region. Bahr Nedjef is a large freshwater sea, situated about forty miles from the right bank of the Euphrates south of Hillah. It is forty miles long, and surrounded by red sandstone cliffs, on which

VIEW OF BROUSA, ASIA MINOR.

stands Meshed Ali, one of the holy cities which are yearly visited in great numbers by the Shiite sect of Mohammedans.

Climate.

Mr. Johnston, from whose analysis most of these data are given, considers that with a fertile soil and a good climate nearly every product should or does flourish in Turkish Asia. This is no doubt true, were the country properly cultivated, and full advantage taken of the facilities for irrigation, by storing the surplus rainfall against dry seasons. For in spite of the many springs and lakes which make green the mountainous parts of it, the region in question is really ill supplied with water, and a long-continued drought will often turn the Valleys of the Tigris, Euphrates, Jordan, and other rivers into the condition of sandy deserts. In ancient times the foresight of the cultivators provided against these contingencies by irrigating canals. But since the Osmanli military despo-

tism has overshadowed the country nothing has been done to extend these, or even to keep the old ones in repair. Hence vast portions of country which could support a flourishing population are now barren, or worse still, malarious marshes, which exhales pestilence, and renders their vicinity dangerous for several months in the year. The mountainous plateau—and especially the eastern part of it—has a severe winter climate. Snow lies for several months in the year, the ground is like iron, and the higher peaks are capped with perpetual white.* But more westerly the winds are milder and the vegetation more of a sub-tropical type, though the variations between summer and winter are still extreme. Olives, mulberries, and other trees, including the arbutus, which grows so luxuriantly round Lake Isnik (Ascania), and the vine flourish, while the country facing the Black Sea, where the climate is more humid, supports great forests of ash, elm, poplar, larch, beech, box, and pine, and, like the genial valleys which open into the Ægean, is industriously cultivated wherever the soil will admit of the plough being driven through its soil. The southern slopes facing the Mediterranean are excessively hot during most of the year, but at the same time fertile in proportion. The inland slopes are subject to a less sultry atmosphere. The Mesopotamian plain is scorched in summer, but during the winter there is generally rain and coolness, and even when no rain falls the water left in pools in the many oases enable great herds of camels and flocks of sheep to pasture over large areas of it. As a rule the climate is salubrious, though during the summer the "Simiel," or poison wind, blows outward in all directions, and the peculiar disease called "Baghdad date mark," and "Aleppo Button," attacks residents and visitors alike in all the cities bordering the Syrian Desert: though it lasts a period of twelve months, it does not appear to be dangerous.† The Syrian shore of the Mediterranean enjoys a milder climate, but even there the summers are oppressively hot. The Lebanon, owing to the height of the hills above the snow line, possesses in places a bracing winter, and a mild and balmy summer, during the periods known as "the former and the latter rains." But wherever the lowlands of the desert are reached the intensely dry summer heat scorches up everything. The Red Sea coast is perhaps as dry as any part of this region. In the Hejaz and Yemen there are no rivers, and hence in the Tehamah, or strip immediately bordering the sea, heat, dryness, and barrenness are the prevailing characteristics, except in the south, where summer rains produce good pasturage. Further into the interior, where the country is more elevated, the climate is cooler, and the soil capable of rearing products not quite so associated with the Desert as are dates. But even then Arabia is by no means a "land flowing with milk and honey," and not capable of ever being much improved even by those panaceas for all ills—irrigation and high farming.

* One of the best and most popular descriptions of this region is to be found in Mr. Charles Williams' charming record of his war experiences during the campaign of 1877, entitled, "The Armenian Campaign" (1878), while M. Tchihatcheff's "Asie Mineure—Description Physique, Statistique, et Archeologique" (1853—1860), and the works of Leake, Beaufort, Arundel, Hamilton, Fellows, Ainsworth, Spratt and Forbes, Newton and Bunbury, among other writers, are almost exhaustive as regards its people, geography, and antiquities, while the treatises of Saint-Martin, Bore, Curzon, Jaubert, Morier, Serpo, Langlois, Goerres, Von Scherzer, Bryce, and others supply the fullest information regarding the special subject of Armenia.

† Keith Johnston: "Geography," p. 353.

Products.

Asia is naturally a rich part of the world, and the Turkish part of it is by no means the poorest section of a wealthy but undeveloped—or, rather, retrograde—land. Mr. McCoan, who is well acquainted with Asia Minor, considers that in the variety of its raw material of national wealth it will compare with any country of Europe. Its density of population is much below the average of Western Europe; but leaving this out of account, "no country from the Bosphorus to the Scheldt more abounds in the elements of great material prosperity." Syria and Chaldæa rank next in the order of potential wealth, and even Kurdistan and Yemen, though at present not promising, have in them "much that vigorous and enlightened government might mint into contributions to national strength. It is hardly too much to say that although these splendid regions formed the cradle of mankind, and the subsequent seat of the greatest empires in history, their stores of national wealth have as yet been merely tapped, and that reserves surpassing all that Assyrian, Roman, Greek, Seljuk, or Ottoman ever touched await in virgin abundance the developing skill and industry of a more advanced civilisation." Both sides of the Bosphorus have advantages for agriculture equal to anything in Europe, but in Asia the geological and climatic conditions of successful husbandry combine in "a degree seldom equalled in Europe." The present condition of the country is so depressed that it affords no criterion by which to judge of its real capabilities. It might, under a proper system of tillage, and with the tillers aided by a government such as that which, by the convention entered into between Great Britain and Turkey, it was hoped might in time be obtained for "our new protectorate," produce crops only limited in amount by the labour and intelligence employed. But even at present, notwithstanding the rude tillage, the gross fiscal abuses, and the want of markets for the surplus not required for local consumption, the country yields in a manner which might well excite the envy of the hardy peasant of Western Europe, who, with every advantage which good government and security for life and property give, can with difficulty persuade the stubborn soil, scowled on by a stern climate, to return more than a scanty return for the most unremitting toil. Wheat, barley, maize, rice, rye, and oats are, in the order stated, the staple crops. The orchards are laden with the fruits of the temperate and sub-tropical regions, and in some parts of the country opium, madder, volonea, and tobacco are very profitable. Wheat is a crop too bulky to pay transportation over the bad roads of the interior, or still less from regions where the roads have yet to be made. Hence, though men and cattle are fed at rates which Europe has not known for ages, the soil adds little to the income of the State or to the accumulated riches of the inhabitants. But the easily carried and more costly products will bear exportation even from regions lying far off the coast. The best tobacco is grown in Syria, and the choicest growths are those of the Ansarieh district, behind Latakia (p. 28) and Konna, not far from Tripoli. Even then Europe is but imperfectly acquainted with the high qualities of the Syrian weed, for the finest growths go to Egypt, the giaour of the West having to be content with the less delicate varieties. Tobacco, indeed, is the great resource of the Lebanon. Opium is extensively grown in Roumelia, but the Anatolia (Asia Minor) drug

is more highly esteemed in commerce, that of the Pashalic of Aïdin, round Smyrna, being especially held in high repute. Brousa (p. 29), Diarbekir, Northern Syria, and the Lebanon are especially famed for their mulberry-trees and the quality of the silk which is produced in these districts. From Brousa alone the average value of the cocoons and raw silk exported is £350,000 per annum. During and for some time after the American war cotton-culture received an immense impetus in Turkey; but after the recuperated South was once more able to send its staple crop to Europe the price of the fibre fell, and hence Egypt alone has maintained up to any extent the stimulus which that exceptional period gave to the growth of this valuable crop. In Mesopotamia the field for its production is practically almost limitless, but both there and in Anatolia and Syria the yield is not much more than is required for local consumption. The boxwood-trees which clothe the hills, commingled with other forest growth, are always in demand for the use of the wood-engraver and cabinet-maker, and dates afford an article of export in every region bordering the coast. Raisins and dried figs have for long been one of the most prominent articles of the Smyrna trade; and though grapes and oranges are very abundant, the demand for them is not equal to the supply, the other Mediterranean countries being quite capable of keeping the European markets filled with those fruits. The wool of the great flocks of goats pastured by the Bedouin and Kurd shepherds, especially in the neighbourhood of Angora, yield the silky fleece known as "mohair," and sheep's wool—like most other products of the country—could be greatly increased under proper management. But the oppression of the tax-gatherer, and the depredation of his "moral compeers," the Kurd and the Bedouin, make sheep and goat farming in Anatolia, Eastern Syria, and Mesopotamia, one of the most precarious instead of one of the most profitable industries of the wide dominion between the Bosphorus and the Gulf of Persia. Of the 250 different mines which the official records of the Porte described as existing throughout the empire, three-fourths are in Asia, though most of the latter are now abandoned, their productiveness having either abated, or the present owners being unable, owing to want of capital, or for other reasons, to continue them either at all or to their full capacity. About thirty are yielding, but none of them to their full capacity. Private concessionaires and Government officials have these mines in their hands, and with the exception of the immense coal-fields of Heraclea (Erekli), on the south coast of the Black Sea, none of them are of prime importance to the mechanical industries of the country. The coal extracted from these pits is of good quality both for household and steaming purposes. But owing to the mines being part of the private domain of the Sultan they have hitherto been utterly mismanaged. The right of working the pits has been jobbed out among private individuals, palace favourites, and corrupt incompetents of every description. Hence, though foreign capitalists have repeatedly made the most advantageous offers for its working, "palace influence" has succeeded in preventing the terms being listened to, with the result that the exchequer obtains little or no profit from what would be a valuable source of wealth in any other country, while the Government and the people of Constantinople have to pay a high price for a very inferior quality of coal, adulterated with impurities from which the miners have not the knowledge or the industry to free the marketable coal. On the Smyrna and Cassaba Railway there is another extensive coal-field, but like the other

THE "TOMB OF JONAH," NEAR THE MOSQUE, ON THE ARTIFICIAL MOUND OF NEBBI YUNIS, NINEVEH.

deposits along both shores of the Bosphorus and the Sea of Marmora, at Turbali, between Smyrna and Aïdin; at Nazli, beyond the latter town; at a village near Van; at Jezireh, on the Tigris, and in the neighbourhood of Baghdad, there has been no systematic or well-conducted efforts made to utilise this vast source of national wealth, which might not only greatly add to the riches of Turkey, but help the trade of the Levant, India, and the Persian Gulf, by supplying cheap fuel on the spot, instead of, as at present, compelling the merchants to import English and other European coals at a cost which seriously reduces their already not over ample profits. Ironstone, yielding 70 per cent. of pure metal is found, besides magnetic iron, and copper ore so rich that the unexhausted but now unworked mines of this metal at Bakir-Kurchai, with their rudest operations, enabled the Turkoman Emir ("Ameer") of Sinope, their then tenant, to pay most of his tribute of 200,000 ducats a year. Near Arghana-maden—on the slopes of the Taurus—are mines still richer, so rich,

VIEW ON THE BANKS OF THE TIGRIS.

indeed, that on an average 12 to 15 per cent. of fine copper can be obtained from the ore, Yet, owing to the want of system and energy on the part of the Government officials who work them on public account, and to the fact that the ore has to be transported for sixty-four hours on horse or camel back to Tocat to be refined, less than 500 tons of metal are yearly produced by them. With a comparatively small expenditure on roads and mining apparatus the profits of the enterprise might be increased more than tenfold; and the same might be affirmed of the numerous other copper lodes in different parts of the empire, which are either not worked at all, or are worked at a loss to the revenue. Argentiferous lead is also abundant in some parts of Asia Minor, and near Trebizond are silver mines, once the most productive in Asia, which do not now yield a hundredweight of the metal. The same tale is true of the veins near Konieh and Diarbekir, and in the island of Imbros. Veins of argentiferous galena crop up in the forests round Akdagh-maden, on the slopes of the Ishik-dagh, and again at Dessek-maden, in the Pashalic of Angora, within ten miles of the navigable Kizil-Irmak River. But not one ounce is extracted. Emery of a splendid quality is found over a wide region, and though imper-

feetly worked it forms an important item in the trade of Smyrna. In Central Mesopotamia, and all along the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates, petroleum and bitumen bubble up at a hundred different points in such abundance that it has been proposed to use it as fuel on the line of steamers which may some day bring back life to the great river of Turkish Asia, or on the line of railway which in time will undoubtedly span the region between Syria and the Gulf. Finally, sulphur and rock-salt exist in abundance, and though worked, as everywhere else, Mr. McCoan remarks, "the potential far exceeds the actual produce."

The proper developement of these mines—either by the Government or otherwise—if aided by competent and honest engineers, and assisted by proper appliances and roads, would make Turkey a wealthy country, while the royalty, which Western capitalists would gladly pay, for the privilege of extracting the metal at their own cost and for their own profit, would afford some hope to the unhappy bondholders, whose prospects are, at present, nearly as hopeless as they can possibly be. But, if left to the unaided enterprise of the Porte, Mr. McCoan's opinion will not be disputed by any impartial person when he affirms that there is little chance of much being done. At every turn "backsheesh" must be paid, and even after a concession is obtained, the firman expressly stipulates that only a certain class or kind of minerals is to be worked. Accordingly, if by good fortune—or what would be considered good fortune in other countries—a vein of a metal not specified in the grant is come across, a fresh firman, with all the old troubles intensified by the fact that the officials are aware that now they have the concessionaires on the horns of a dilemma, must be gone through. After all, the mines are at the mercy of an ignorant and greedy "district engineer," who may, at any moment, present an unfavourable report, and thus lead to the closing of the mines. This trusty servant of the State is, of course, always open to conviction, when the argument is backed by a sufficient "backsheesh." But the effect of this logical instrument is apt to get less and less potent as time rolls on, unless its weight is increased. This may be done, but in the end the profits of the mines suffer, and, in time, the whole affair is thrown up in disgust, even if the malice, jealousy, grievances, or venality of the officials do not obtain the cancelling of the original firman under which they were worked. As we write, "placer" deposits of gold are reported from more than one part of the empire. But, it is almost needless to say, that if the Stamboul bureaucrats have the means of mismanaging the mines, neither the State—nor its creditors—nor the people of Turkey at large, will have much chance of benefiting by them.

The forests of the empire are a source of wealth almost as great as the mines, but as little utilised and as much wasted as the latter. Until a few years ago the Government exercised absolutely no control over the vast tracts of splendid timber which are found in every province. The people cut down, burnt, or made into charcoal, great forests of fine trees, with the maximum of waste and the minimum of profit. If a faggot of firewood were required a tree, priceless in other districts, and even there possibly of less value for fuel than a score of others hard by, was hewn down, and the most easily split off portions used, simply because it was "handiest," while the same method was

adopted did the local carpenter find himself in need of plank, or the boat-builder feel inclined to knock together a new "scow," or to tinker the old one he inherited as part of his father's estate. Ali Pasha, rightly conceiving that this was not a proper state of matters, managed to get a Forest Department instituted. Its officials set to work, but beyond formulating a few absurd regulations which impeded legitimate commerce, they did little or nothing to prevent the destruction of one of the most valuable crops which the soil could yield. The department still exists, and publishes an annual report, in which they take credit to themselves of sending to the Treasury, in the shape of fees, the sum of £150,000, at a cost for collection of £80,000, but though its members and agents continue to draw their salaries—when they can get them—we are assured by the former editor of the late *Levant Herald* that they do little or nothing to protect, and still less to profitably develop, this almost virgin element of natural wealth. The substitution of iron for timber in ship-building has lessened the value of these forests to the State, but, as the revolution in naval warfare proceeds, it is more than likely that the vast groves of oak, boxwood, beech, maple, elm, walnut, ash, pine, and other woods that clothe the mountain slopes of three sides of Asia Minor, and among other parts of the interior—that cover Olympus behind Brousa, in the vicinity of Ismidt, by the banks of the Sakaria River, which runs through forty miles of the finest woodland between Scutari and Kars, and along the whole southern coast of the Black Sea, past the dense groves of Sinope, Tireboli, and Trebizond—may become of more value then they are at present, or have been for many years past. The immense littoral of the Turkish Empire might reasonably be expected to yield great wealth in the shape of fisheries. Fish there are of many varieties, in prodigious abundance and of very excellent quality. But the major portion of the coast still lies fallow, owing to the incorrigibly foolish fiscal policy of the Government. It farms out certain parts of the shore to private individuals at low rents, and then levies an *ad valorem* duty on the catch. The result is, that the sea is not half fished, and that fish are retailed in the towns at such all but prohibitory prices, that during the Greek and Armenian Lents red mullet, which swarm in the Bosphorus and on the adjacent coasts of the Red Sea, are sold in Galata at five shillings per pound, and the other better class of white fish in proportion.

The great marble strata, which give a name to the Sea of "Marmora" (that is, marble), the puce-spotted white stone of Synnada, the black basalt of Diarbekir, the lovely green marble of Elbek, the quarries out of which Nineveh and Nimrod were built, the granite of Central Syria, the durability of which is attested by the columns of Palmyra and Baalbek, and the meerschaum of Kutaya, which supplies the workshops of the Viennese pipe-makers, are among the other all but undeveloped mineral wealth of Turkey in Asia, while the sponge fisheries of the Ægean, though almost a monopoly of the Archipelago, are strangled by official abuses. Roads, re-adjustment of taxation, and abolition of tax-farming are all required before anything can be done to improve Turkey, and in particular Turkey in Asia. But the Empire has not the funds to make the first, and the Sultan and his corrupt *entourage* have not the will to carry out the other two reforms.

ARMENIAN LADIES.

CHAPTER IV.

The Turkish Empire: Turkey in Asia.

The general character of the Turkish Empire has already been indicated with as much fulness as our space will admit of. Asia Minor has also been described in some detail; but before passing to Africa it may be useful to indicate, though in the briefest manner, the general characteristics of a few of the other Governments which we have mentioned in passing.

Armenia.

Turkish Armenia is now much smaller than it formerly was, the fortunes of war having rapidly curtailed its dimensions, for Kars and much of the surrounding district have now passed under the rule of Russia. Like Asia Minor, the greater part of Armenia is a table-land, rising to the height of from 4,000 to 7,000 feet, and culminating in Mount Ararat, which is just within the Russian bounds, and may be said to be the point of union of the dominions of the Czar, the Shah, and the Sultan. Though Armenia has little level land, its mountains, unlike those of the west, are not often capped with snow, and its passes are comparatively easy. Wood is scarcer than in Asia Minor—so scarce, indeed, that in most parts of the country the only fuel available consists of the droppings of the cattle, and among the characteristics of an Armenian village during the summer months is the *tezek*, or flat cakes of this heating material plastered on the walls of the houses in order to be dried for winter use. The valleys are, however, fertile, and yield all kinds of crops, for the climate is exceedingly varied according to the elevation of the district above the sea and the season of the year. In the uplands the winter is all but Arctic, while for several weeks of the summer no rain falls, and the air is so scorching that the country far and near is as brown as if it had been blasted by a sirocco. Yet in Central Armenia is believed to have been the site of the Garden of Eden,* and there are districts in the valleys of the Euphrates and Tigris beautiful and fertile enough to be Paradise itself, were they properly drained and governed at all in accordance with the civilised precedents which by the Treaty of Berlin were to be introduced into the country.† The quondam glory of Armenia has long ago departed, for no longer has it a separate existence, or its docile, keen-witted, handsome, and industrious people (p. 36) a national life. Ancient Armenia, which was a kingdom long before the time of Alexander the Great, is now divided among Russia, Persia, and Turkey. The Czar's part is

* Chesney: "Expedition to the Euphrates and Tigris," Vol. I., pp. 266–282.

† Schweiger-Lerchenfeld: "Armenien" (1878); Arzuni: "Die ökonomische Lage der Armenier in der Turkei" (1879).

mainly included in the Government of Erivan, the Persian part is absorbed in the Government of Azerbaijan, while Turkish Armenia is principally in the province of Erzeroum, in which are situated the cities of Erzeroum and Van. The Russian towns are Erivan, Etchmiadzin, Ordubad, and Alexandropol, and the Persian portion of Armenia contains only one place of any importance, namely, Uramiyah.

Kurdistan.

The area of this wild region differs considerably in its northern and southern portions, in so far that the former is more mountainous than the latter, though it encloses the very considerable plateau between Erdoz-dagh and the Jebel-Judi. Southward the country is for the most part level, or the surface is only varied by three or four ranges of low hills. The northern part is characterised by "conical bare summits with irregular sides, the northern slopes of which are partially covered with stunted cedars, valonea, junipers, and other dwarf shrubs; while those to the south are wooded about the top with pines, and with elms, poplars, and walnut-trees towards the pasture grounds towards the deep valleys at their base." Most of the rivers of Kurdistan are of minor importance, being for the most part shallow and swift, and thus almost useless for purposes of navigation. The country is, moreover, all but at the mercy of the Kurdish tribes—robber-ruffians, who render any civilised pursuits next to impossible, and whose murderous raids into Armenia, and even into Persia, which during the autumn of 1880 they invaded in force, the Turkish officials seem either powerless to stop or careless about giving themselves the trouble of attempting to prevent. Yet the country is good as regards what soil can be cultivated, while its climate is better than that of Armenia. Its heat in summer—great though it be—is not so severe, nor is its winter's cold quite so intense. Hence, in the valleys surrounded by its wooded hills are produced in abundance "mulberries, cotton, tobacco, hemp, wheat, pulse, maize, the castor-oil plant, melons, pumpkins, grapes, and orchard fruit of almost every variety."

Mesopotamia and Irak.

These extensive but heterogeneous provinces extend "from the south-eastern slopes of the Taurus and the table-land of Armenia to the Arabian Desert and the Persian Gulf, and west and east from the Syrian Desert to the Kurdish Alps, over a total area of about 160,000 square miles," though, strictly speaking, "the island," as Mesopotamia is called, includes only so much of the region lying between the Euphrates and the Tigris as lies north of the old Median wall that ran "obliquely across the narrow waist in which the two rivers approach each other above Baghdad." Part of Mesopotamia is hilly and well wooded, its character partaking of that of Asia Minor, but as these hills slope down into the plains of Mesopotamia a country is entered which is over great tracts sterile and almost without vegetation, though in the neighbourhood of the rivers and the old irrigating canals excellent crops of all sub-tropical products are reared.

Irak-Arabi—that is, Irak of the Arabs, to distinguish it from Irak-Adjem, or the Persian Irak—or Babylonia, to use the name by which it is better known, comprises the country on both sides of the Tigris and Euphrates, from a few miles above Baghdad to the Gulf. "The whole," writes Mr. McCoan, to whom we are indebted for nearly every fact regarding this region, "forms one great alluvial plain, slightly undulating in the centre, but without a single natural hill, and with few trees but the date-palm, gradually sinking in elevation southward till it subsides into an expanse of mere marshes and lagoons. The soil northward is gravelly, which changes lower down into clay, covered with mould of sand and the more tenacious deposits left by frequent inundations. Agriculture, however, is but little practised, the chief wealth of both the settled and the nomad population being derived from the vast flocks, for which the abundance of water provides a plentiful pasturage of coarse grass nearly all the year round. During the extreme summer heat in this section only the immediate neighbourhoods of the river retain their verdure; but these are extensive enough to provide temporarily for the herds, while the face of the country elsewhere is nearly as scorched and bare as if it had been swept by a prairie fire. The number and size of the ruins scattered over the southern region still attest its once splendid material civilisation; nor are these the only evidence of its decadence. Except round Baghdad, the traveller now sees hardly a trace of the date groves, the vineyards, and the gardens which excited the admiration of Xenophon; and with these results of the ancient industry the population that produced them has almost proportionately decayed. The wild ass, the tiger-cat, and the jackal prowl at will over the sites of the once populous towns and villages, and the vast tracts in which agriculture formerly flourished are now either barren steppes, or at best furnish pasturage to the wandering Bedoween."*

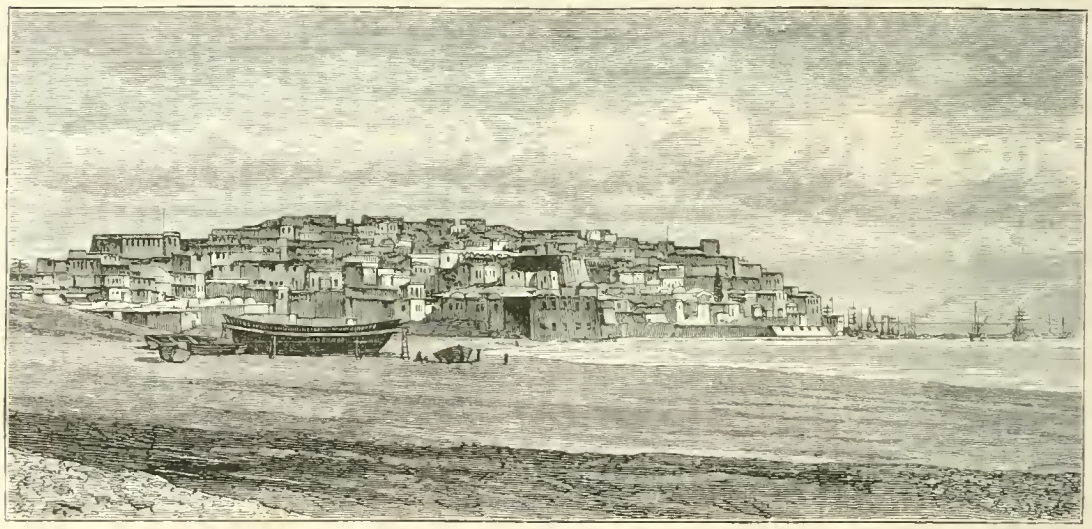
Syria and Palestine.

To many readers the "Holy Land" will be by far the most interesting part of the Turkish Empire in Asia. No portion of the world possesses so great historical associations; none can ever rival it in sacred importance, for it contains Jerusalem, Damascus, and a score of other cities, towns, and villages which have been familiar to every one since childhood. However, of late years the country has been frequently visited. Guide-books exist describing all its main features, and a society for its exploration has made its geography and antiquities known with an accuracy which can be claimed for few countries out of Europe. Hence, a briefer account of Palestine may suffice in this place.

Under the name of Syria is comprised a narrow coast-lying strip of country, about 440 miles long and from 50 to 100 broad. We have already seen that its principal physical feature is the longitudinal branch of the Taurus, which, to use Mr. McCoan's words, "runs like a double spine through two-thirds of its length, broken at several points by valleys of various widths, but dividing the whole into three distinct belts," the last of which is "the hill country of Judæa," which finally merges into the

* "Our New Protectorate," Vol. I., p. 60.

Desert of the Wanderings (El Tih), and the rugged peninsula on which is situated Mount Sinai. These ranges send out transverse spurs, and in addition to Esdraelon and other extensive plains are cut with valleys and narrow glens, or "wadys." In Syria proper the summits and slopes of many of these mountains are wooded with dense forests of the usual type found in this part of Asia, but in Palestine, south of Samaria, the otherwise fine mountain and valley scenery is rendered less attractive by the prevalence of a scanty vegetation, or, as in the country east and south of Sharon —a valley famous to-day, as it was of old, for its beauty and fertility—so desolate and barren as to lead us to imagine that the Hebrew poets, in describing "the land" as "flowing with milk and honey," indulged in a more than ordinary Oriental piece of imagery. There are thus in Syria and Palestine three distinct longitudinal belts—"the

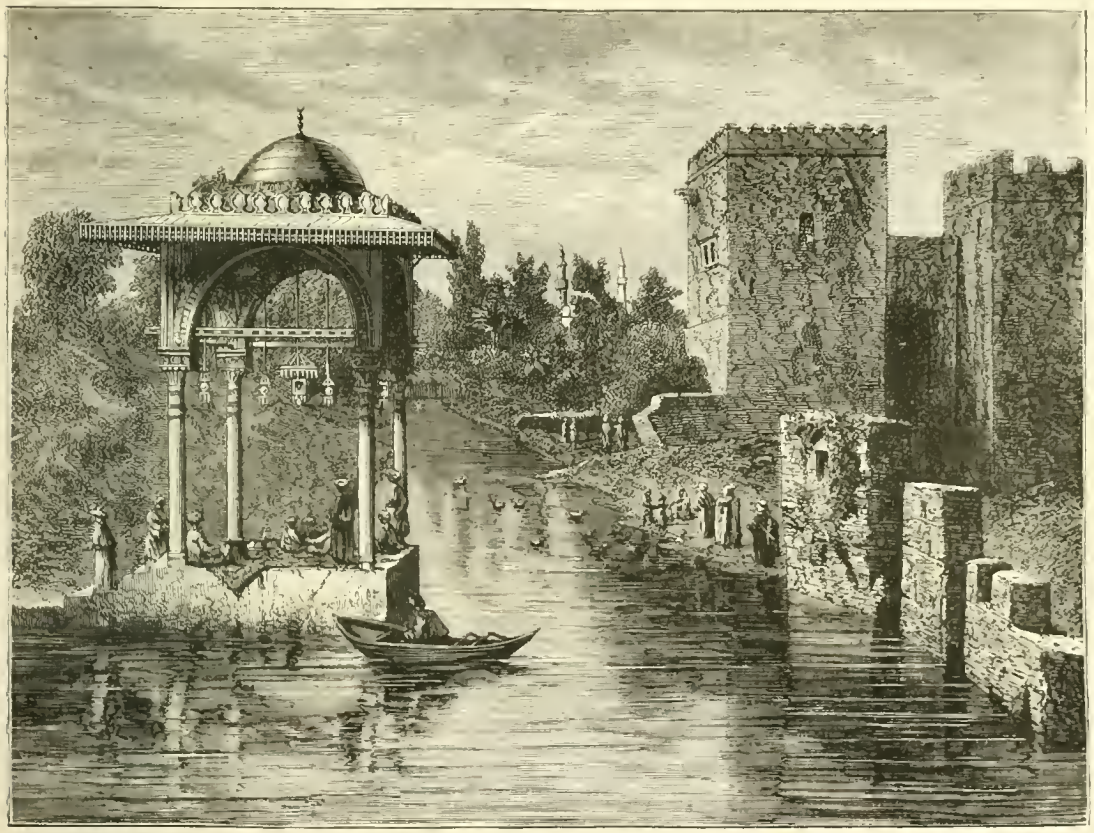


VIEW OF JAFFA.

maritime district between the western range and the sea, the long succession of valleys between the two ridges themselves, and the eastern tract between the latter and the desert." The seaward belt varies much in breadth. Sometimes it comprises wide plains, at other places it consists of narrow passes, while at points, where the voyager sights bold headlands, the range reaches the sea without the intervention of any level land. It and the third belt also contained old cities of great importance, and is therefore that part of the Holy Land most instinct with historical associations. At the northern end of the maritime region stands Alexandretta, or Scanderoon, an ancient town built on a feverish swamp, but with the best harbour on the coast of Syria, and therefore long the port of Aleppo, lying inland behind it, and of Northern Mesopotamia and Mosul generally;* Seleucia, which has been spoken of as the western terminus of the coming Euphrates Valley Railway; Latakia, whose tobacco has given it a name in the world; and Tripoli, an important town, destined in time, when a railway unites it with the rest of the world, to be, not

* See Cameron's "Our Future Highway" (1880), for a description of this region.

only a great commercial *entrepôt*, but also a haunt much frequented by seekers after a perpetual summer. Then comes the country of the Druzes, a rugged hill district immediately south of Beyrout, of which Sidon (Saïda) and Tyre (Sur) are the only towns which appeal to the memory of the student of the past;* while south of the headland Nakûrah is the plain of Acre, and the promontory of Carmel, beyond which lies the vale of Sharon, now but little cultivated, the herds of the wild Bedoweens being about the only signs of life in a valley which more than two thousand years ago supported



VIEW IN THE ENVIRONS OF DAMASCUS.

a flourishing population. Passing Cæsarea, in which of old Herod held his court, we come to Jaffa (p. 40), the port of Jerusalem, Ascalon, famed in the Crusades, and Gaza, which lies just on the inner limits of the rich loamy soil of the Sharon valley. Still further southward, we tread upon an alkaline sand, and soon after enter the desert, which prevails until it is relieved by the fertile alluvium of the Nile Delta, in Egypt. The second belt stretches between the double chain of central mountains from below the Lake of Antioch, through a country of varied character, until it is lost in the Idumæan Desert. The principal portions of the third belt are the great plain of

* Sepp: "Meerfahrt nach Tyrus" (1878).

Damascus, east of the Anti-Lebanon, and the outlying district of the Haurân; the regions north and south of them are mainly sand deserts or sandy plateaux, relieved by an occasional oasis, but altogether devoid of economical interest, and having more in common with the desert than with Syria and Palestine proper. Damascus, surrounded by a fertile flower-covered country, is the chief city and place of commerce, though the outlying villages are subject to the harassment of the wandering Bedoweens; but far out in the desert, away from the path of commerce, and "the ken of politics," lies Palmyra, or Tadmor, no longer of any interest save to antiquaries. Separated from the plain of Damascus by a strip of desert is the wide-spreading Haurân, which nowadays, as in the past, forms one of the most interesting parts of Palestine. The stonier parts are chiefly inhabited by the Arabs, who pasture their flocks in the better spots, and cultivate a few patches. The fine fertile plain south of this wild region was once thickly studded with towns and villages, though in modern times they have been half deserted, owing to the incursions of the Bedoweens. The Druze population inhabit the remaining portion of it, viz., El-Jebel, a mountain district between the fertile region mentioned and the great Eastern desert. This part of the Haurân is dotted with ruined towns, which point to its having been in early times much more prosperous than at present, in spite of its sheiks practically ruling the whole Haurân. In Mohammedan days the Druze country has gained fame and profit mainly owing to its lying in the route of the great annual Hadj, or pilgrimage from Damascus to Mecca. But even this source of wealth it is rapidly losing, since the Hadjis are year after year becoming more and more attached to the less fatiguing route across Egypt and to Jeddah by sea, a penance with boiled peas not being a peculiarity of the time-serving penitents of any particular country. Another distinct section of the country is the Pashalic of Aleppo, containing more than 7,000 square miles, in many places "reticulated with mountains," but also containing numerous fine level tracts, studded with Turkish, Armenian, and, according to Mr. McCoan, "Turkoman" villages also. Syria is drained by numerous small rivers, but with the exception of the Euphrates, which bounds the north-eastern districts, the Orontes and Leontes—or, as they are now known, the Bahr-el-A'sy and Bahr-el-Litâni—are the only ones of consequence, though Abana and Pharpar, "rivers of Damascus," will for ever be associated in our minds with the tale of the Assyrian captain, who visited the Hebrew prophet; while the Nahr-Ibrahim, or Adonis, which constitutes the drainage of part of the Lebanon, is famous in classic story as the stream on the banks of which the favourite of Venus received his death wound. At Afka, near its source, the goddess was worshipped under the name of Astarte, or Ashtaroth, and at Byblus, close by its mouth, a few miles north of Beyrout, the Syrian maidens lamented the fate of "Thammuz yearly wounded," though in reality the fabled blood of Adonis which coloured the river was only the hue derived from the red earth swept down by the summer floods. But of all "the waters of Israel" there is none so great or so famous as the Jordan. It is the one great river of the country, and, roughly speaking, may be said to be the recipient of all the minor streams of Palestine which do not flow directly into the Mediterranean. We first hear of the Jordan as the Nahr-Hasbany, which

issuing from the western base of Mount Hermon, ends the first stage of its course in the marshy lake of Huleh, or Merom. Here also it is joined by the Lesser Jordan from "Dan," and therefore issues from the lake in a large river, now for the first time known as the Jordan (El-Urdun), and after coursing for a few miles through a rich country, flows into the beautiful Lake of Gennesaret, Galilee, or Tiberias. Traversing this, and coursing through the great depression of El-Ghor, it falls through a mouth bordered with willows and reeds on its right bank, and "a dreary nitrous-crested tract, on which hardly a tuft even of camel-thorn is to be seen," on its left, into the Dead Sea. The climate of Syria and Palestine is as varied as its configuration. On the higher slopes of Lebanon, whose peaks lie in the region of perpetual snow, the winter temperature is sharp and bracing, and the summer and autumn much the same as what we have in England. In the lower western slopes, and in the sea-lying regions, as well as in the Plain of Esdraelon, the western side of Damascus, and the valley of the Jordan, the summer heat is "clammy and oppressive," though highly favourable to crops, and in both summer and winter there are rainy seasons. Suedia and Beyrout bear the reputation of being exempt from the malaria which prevails, though much of the mountain region, more especially in the neighbourhood of Alexandretta and Tripoli, South-eastern Syria, and most of Central and Southern Palestine, enjoy a warm and dry climate, a winter mild and slightly wet, and sometimes even blessed with a little snow, which contrasts with the scorching heat of the summer, when every green thing becomes parched brown. In Jerusalem, July and August are extremely hot months, but so varied is the country that no one need at almost any season be at a loss in Palestine for the exact climate which suits him. In time, when railways permeate the country, now only traversed on donkey, horse, or camel, the Holy Land will experience the revivifying influence of a horde of tourists and health-seekers, who will afford a pleasant contrast to the soldiers, the crusaders, and the pilgrims, with whose visits in earlier times the sacred soil of Palestine is most familiarly associated.*

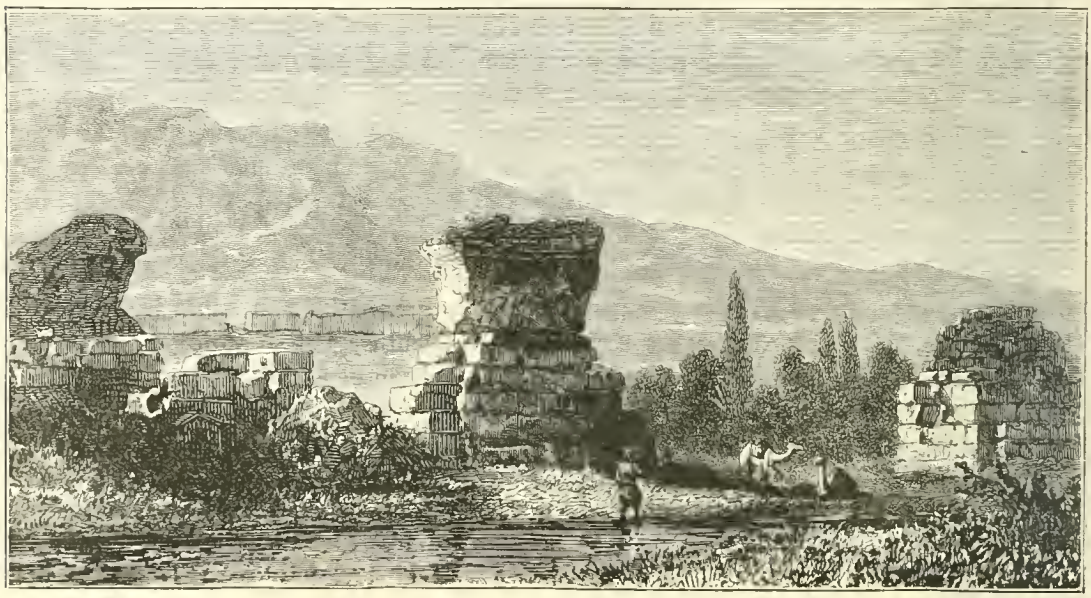
Some Cities of Turkish Asia.

Incidentally we have referred to various towns scattered through the regions we have so rapidly traversed. In ancient times they were the centre of a civilisation prosperous, if not high, and their lonely valleys are yet dotted with half-decaying towns or the ruins of great cities. In former times these excited the wonder of the world, and finally its envy. This led to their destruction. A few words, therefore, on some of these may fittingly close this sketch of the Sultan's possessions in Asia, though it would be a hopeless task to present anything like accurate trade statistics of this part of the world. Some of the vilayets publish official almanacks with imposing arrays of figures, and from these, we have the authority of Mr. McCoan for saying, most of the Consular Reports are compiled, a fact which ought to be stated in every case, since data which, if issued directly from the office of a Turkish pasha, would be scoffed at by statisticians, receive a more respectful reception when presented

* McCoan: "Our New Protectorate," Vol. I., pp. 90–106, from which admirable work these facts are condensed.

in all the dignity of a parliamentary blue-book. But these returns are, for the reasons we have so often stated, entirely untrustworthy, for even when the bureaucrat is reasonably honest, the ignorance, laziness, and general laxity of the ruling class in Turkey prevent them from taking the trouble necessary to obtain statistics either complete or exact.

Constantinople is, of course, the great centre of Turkish trade, but after it comes Smyrna, which now disputes with Alexandria the right of being called the Liverpool of the Levant, and among classical scholars has a certain interest as being one of the Seven Ionian cities which claimed the honour of having been the birthplace of



THE RUINS OF SARDIS.

Homer, while it has the still greater glory of sharing with Ephesus, Pergamos, Thyatira, Sardis, Philadelphia, and Laodicea the distinction of having been one of the "Seven Churches of Asia."* However, while the other six are nowadays either wretched villages, or so ruined that their very site can with difficulty be traced, Smyrna is still a flourishing city of about 200,000 inhabitants, though the exact number of its people and their respective nationalities can only be stated according to "common report," as an exact census is among the reforms which are as yet afar off in Asiatic Turkey. The Turks are said to number 70,000, which may be considered a fair estimate, as they live apart from all the rest of the population in their own quarter of the town, and therefore can more easily be roughly numbered. The Greeks are given out to be 80,000 in number, the Armenians 10,000, the Jews, who prefer to live by themselves, 15,000, and the "Levantines" 14,000. The

* Davis: "Life in Asiatic Turkey" (1879).

last-named form some of the characteristic elements of the population of every city in this part of the East, and in Constantinople, Smyrna, and other large ports it is especially marked. They are the offspring of the mixed marriages of Europeans and natives, and though in most cases they have more of the characteristics of the latter than the former, are very punctilious about acknowledging any connection with their mother's relatives. They are English, French, Italian, German, Spanish—anything but Armenian or Greek—and claim all the rights of the nationality to which their father

VIEW OF BAGHDAD.

was traditioned to belong, though in the majority of cases they can speak his language either not at all or very imperfectly. The Levantines supply the interpreters, dragomans, and other links between the Turkish officials and the European ambassadors, consuls, and merchants, though the uninitiated would never imagine, from seeing "Donald Macpherson" or "Giacomi Tintorelli" figuring among the diplomatic staff, that the gentlemen so designated had never been either in England or in Italy, and can at best only speak English or Italian, as the Captain in Cromwell's army served the King—"after a fashion." It may be added that though many of the Levantine families are of the highest respectability, the general reputation of the order does not deservedly rank high. They are universally allowed to be sharp in business,

and their knowledge of the country and the people being naturally superior to that of the foreign merchants, the Levantines would be a dangerous element commercially were the confidence of the community in their honour equal to their known ability in buying and selling.

Smyrna, from the sea, looks very picturesque, but, like most Eastern cities, an inside view of it dispels the illusions generated in the Roads. It has dirty, ill-drained, and narrow streets. The suburban villages, embosomed in verdure, are, however, charming retreats. Here the wealthy merchants and officials reside in villas, some of which are equal to anything which the most refined pleasure towns of Europe can show, and where hospitality is as open, as home-life and pleasant as anywhere else in the good world of kindly folks whose even-tenoured way is never disturbed by the thought that in the hills in sight of their drawing-room windows there are wild Turkomans and Zebeks, who care little either for pasha, padishah, or consul. All the wealth of the West pours into this port, and out of it are sent yearly nearly four million pounds' worth of raisins, cotton, valonea, drugs, wool, silk, hides, wine, sponges, tobacco, and other products of the East, including about 12,000 tons of figs. The town is very European-looking; fine hotels, cafés, and shops are springing up, and French is rapidly becoming the international tongue, instead of the half-dozen languages the older Smyrniotes used to speak. Brousa, in Bithynia, was once the capital of the Empire, but has now fallen from its former eminence. Yet, embosomed in trees, and approached by a road over a great plain, its position at the base of Olympus gives it a right to be considered one of the prettiest towns in Asia Minor. Rearing and weaving silk, the manufacture of bath towels, and the mixed cotton and silk fabric known in commerce as "Brousa silk," supply employment to the majority of the population of 73,000, many of whom are foreigners or the *employés* of the foreign capitalists who have erected and work the numerous mills in the town and its vicinity.

Angora we have already noticed as the metropolis of the fine wool known as mohair (p. 32), and Konieh—the Iconium, which was the capital of the Seljûk Sultans—though excellently situated for being the centre of a large grain export trade, is now in a very moribund condition, carpet weaving, the dyeing of blue and yellow leather, and a few other trifling industries, being about the only trade of the bigoted Mussulman population, who suffer more than they imagine from their opposition to Giaour innovations of every kind.

Sivas, a considerable wool exporting city, is a place of more importance, and has trade connections with Yuzgat and Kaisarieh, flourishing towns in Angora, which in Byzantine times absorbed much of the trade of Eastern Asia Minor. Amasia, a town with 30,000 inhabitants, and once one of the strongholds of Genoese commerce, is a pleasant picturesque place, full of fragments of Saracenic mosque architecture, which, however, like the rock tombs of the old Pontic kings, Mr. McCoan tells us, are allowed by the ignorant Turkish officials to fall into decay. Raw silk, flax, hemp, grain, opium, and wool are mostly contributed by Tcharshembah, Niksar, Karahissar, and Tocat, which last also sends through it on the way to the port of Samsoun the product of its copper smelting works. Batoum was, at one time, the best Turkish port on the

Black Sea, but since it has fallen by the fortunes of the last war into the hands of the Russians, Samsoun has the pre-eminence in this respect. It affords better anchorage than Trebizond, and only requires the expenditure of a little money in the way of improvements to attract to it an even larger and more profitable commerce than at present finds an outlet through it. Adana is another active commercial centre in Asia Minor, though the town itself does not contribute much to the large exports of the province of which it is the capital. Mr. McCoan mentions a curious fact as illustrating the marvellous richness of the soil. The manure, instead of being used, is *burnt*, and yet the land has continued for ages to yield abundantly wheat, barley, and cotton, in addition to a variety of other crops usually grown in these parts of the Turkish Empire.

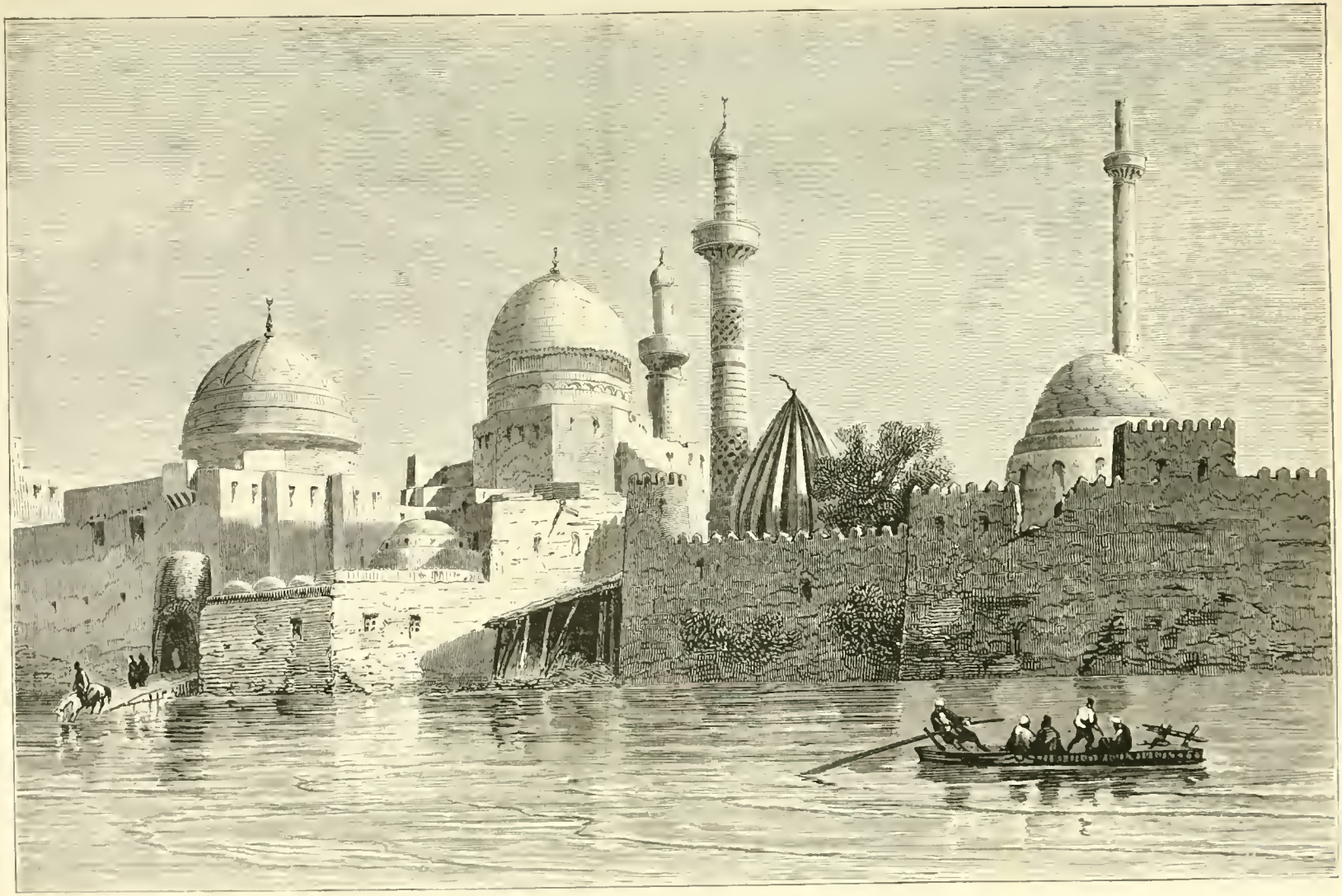
Erzeroum, owing mainly to the large Persian trade which flows through it on the way to Trebizond, is perhaps the most important commercial city of Armenia. With the expenditure of large sums of money, the site of the town is such that it might be made a rival to Kars, now in Russian hands, but at present little favourable can be predicted in regard to its future commercial prospects. Were it not for the through traffic it would be a dead-alive town, while residentially—it is the general opinion of those who have visited it of late—nothing can ever make it attractive. The repair of the old caravan roads, the making of new, and the building of railways may recover for it some of the commerce which it lost by the construction of the Poti-Tiflis railway, and attract to it more. But that day is yet hidden from men of our times.

Erzeroum is, however, little more than a half-way house to Trebizond, which has been characterised as "the natural emporium of the whole of Upper Armenia to Kars eastward to Diarbekir in the west." Maize, and especially nuts and beans for exportation to the United States, are among the sources of its wealth. Boxwood and mohair are also among its exports, and in both the trade could be greatly increased were not the prohibitive duties which the Government levies on them—especially on the former — paralysing the efforts of those interested in exporting these easily-converted raw materials of wealth. Kharpout, a decayed town, is nowadays only important as the centre of a great mineral and agricultural country, as fertile and densely peopled as any in Asia Minor. Orchards, and the great crops of grain and cotton, fill up the intervals between the often recurring villages which stud the plain overlooking the city, while the copper and silver mines of Arghana and the Keban-mâden never want for hands to work them, as the neighbourhood is so over-populated that every year there is a large emigration from it to Aleppo, Egypt, and Constantinople. Diarbekir, though sharing in the general decadence, is another important Asiatic city, and the capital of Kurdistan, which sends through it the bulk of its surplus products. Its position on the Tigris, just at the point where begins the first water available for transit purposes to Mosul, Baghdad, and the Persian Gulf, ought to give it, when railways or even ordinary roads feed it from behind, commercial advantages difficult to over-estimate. Even now the trade of the plain is considerable, and ever on the increase, especially in wool, mohair, galls, cotton, orpiment, and wax. Once on a time it was famous for its silver filagree work. Much is still made there, but the artizans are said to be falling off in skill;

and Mr. Geary, who examined it critically, declares that it is inferior to that of Kutch, in India. The Persian trade is not now a tithe of what it once was, the Russians having diverted much of it to the Caspian route. Yet even in Roman times Diarbekir seems to have been a place of note. There are endless remains of their handiwork in it—bridges, arches, walls, fortifications, and churches, which are now mosques, but were once Christian places of worship, and before that time pagan temples. The population of the town is at present about 60,000, of whom rather more than one-half are Christians, mostly Armenian, though there are Roman Catholics, orthodox Greeks, Chaldeans, and Syrians, who live rather ill at ease in the midst of the fanatical Turks and Kurds.

Mosul, on the bank of the Tigris (p. 49), directly opposite ancient Nineveh, attracts most of the trade of Middle Mesopotamia and Eastern Kurdistan, and would attract still more, did not the cost of transporting goods to the Mediterranean or the Gulf under the present arrangements narrow the commerce within certain local limits. Hence, wheat and barley, even under the wretched system of agriculture now in vogue, are so abundant as to render them hardly worth the labour of cultivating for the sake of profit. "A piastre or a piastre and a half [between 3d. and 4d.] a day will feed a whole Arab family on the excellent thin flat bread and [according to the season] the huge cucumbers, melons, or onions that grow in rank abundance along the low Assyrian bank of the river between Nineveh and the Tigris, and which, washed down by some milk, form the staple food of the Fellaheen." Baghdad (p. 45) is a still more famous city. Here was the home of Haroun Al Raschid, and hence for ever it must be associated with much that is brightest in the far East, probably because the pleasant pictures of "The Thousand and One Nights" are so far removed from its present dismal reality. Still one of the most picturesque of Oriental towns, though architecturally nothing like what it once was, and owing to the swamps formed by the flood-waters of the Euphrates not one of the most healthy, it has the rarer pre-eminence of being one of the most prosperous. Lines of steamers ply between it and the towns in the Persian Gulf and India, and were the Turkish Government more alive to its own interests, and less insanely jealous of foreigners, the trade of the town and the navigation of the Tigris (p. 33)—as well as of the Euphrates (p. 56), which unites with it at Kurnah, lower down—could be immensely increased. The thousands of Persian pilgrims who pass through on their way to the shrines of the Shiite saints at Kerbella and Nedjef, west of the Euphrates, and who carry with them the corpses of hundreds of their relatives to be buried in the soil made sacred by holding the ashes of the martyred grandson of the Prophet, also enriched Baghdad in the past, and to a less extent do so still. They left much money in the country, and, moreover, while the chief object of the journey was a pious one, they never forgot to bring with them a little venture of Persian goods and to take back with them another of Turkish wares. The city contains about 70,000 people,* the great

* A census taken in 1869 affects to give it a population of 150,000, but Sir Henry Rawlinson considers this an exaggeration. See also Wellsted's "City of the Caliphs," and Groves' "Residence in Baghdad" (1830-32).



VIEW OF MOSUL (FROM THE TIGRIS).

majority Shiite Mohammedans; but there are also a small number of Armenian Christians, and about 18,000 Jews, mostly descendants of those who were carried off into captivity, who monopolise the banking business of the place, and exact cent. per cent. from the representatives of their ancient captors and oppressors. The main suburb of the city is reached by crossing the river on a crazy bridge of boats, but though the streets there are in most cases modern, the majority are exceedingly narrow and chocked up with a noisy, yelling crowd of porters, camels, donkeys, and mules, most of the paths being too dirty and too uneven to admit of carriages being used with any approach to convenience. When Midhat Pasha was governor of the province he introduced many useful improvements, among others a line of tramways by which Kazimain, a shrine and suburb four miles south of the city, can be reached. This line was contracted by a company which has the distinction of having been the first joint-stock enterprise which Turkey in Asia ever had the courage to embark in, though the Governor-General had to put a little official pressure on a number of wealthy people before they could be induced to risk their money in a concern which they imagined was only a new Giaourish invention for "squeezing them." As it now pays cent. per cent. on the original outlay, the shareholders have changed their minds. The population is very mixed, but Arabic is the language of all classes, and is likely to continue to be, as the city is yearly recruited from the desert. Wild horsemen come into it to trade, and, tempted by the luxuriousness of urban life, settle down, and in a generation or so become as civilised and mild as if they had never sent a spear through a looted traveller. As Bombay and the cities of Northern India bear evidence in the adventurers who yearly come to them from the city of the Caliphs, the Baghdadis are by no means immaculate. But at home the Arabs bear a good reputation, the Armenians and Jews supplying the objectionable class to which we refer. The population are not a cheerful race. A downcast appearance and morose disposition are their main characteristics, and long thin features and an ample nose are the distinctive marks by which most of them can be at once detected, the nose being, perhaps, a Semetic gift to the population among whom the original possessors have so long lived. The European community in Baghdad is very limited in number. The chief firms are English or connected with the English line of steamers, and in the Turkish machine-shops and building-yards there are employed many Europeans of various nationalities—Germans, French, English, and Greek, though the latter are for the most part connected with the Government offices, while the Turks are almost without exception employed, directly or indirectly, in the administration. There are, of course, wandering Persians and Shiite Mohammedans from India settled in the city, while in the streets there may be met, within the space of a few minutes, Bedowcens from the Arabian desert, Kurds from the North, Syrians from Damascus, traders from Afghanistan, Egyptians, Hindoos, and even Negroes. After the labours of the day are over the richer people bring out their horses and indulge in wild gambols, they go to the baths, or in the greater number of cases adjourn to one of the many coffee-houses of the city, where all classes sit side by side, unconscious of any social barriers such as would divide them in the West, smoking and sipping the black liquid out of thimble-like cups, and all the time speaking never a word,

and, judging from the result, thinking of nothing at all. They seem a philosophical people. Life is not hard in this ancient city. It is true, the "Baghdad date mark" (p. 30) is a certainty for every one, native or foreigner, who tarries any length of time within it, and that scorpions are so troublesome that in the summer people sleep on the roofs of their houses to be out of their way and to escape the stifling heat of rooms. Even in the streets they are so numerous that at night it is advisable to carry a lantern in order to be able to avoid them. Nor is the country so well governed that robbers hesitate about lurking even so near the town as the tomb of Zobeide, the queen of "Good Haroun Al Raschid," in wait for people travelling by night from Baghdad to Hillah or Mosseyib.*

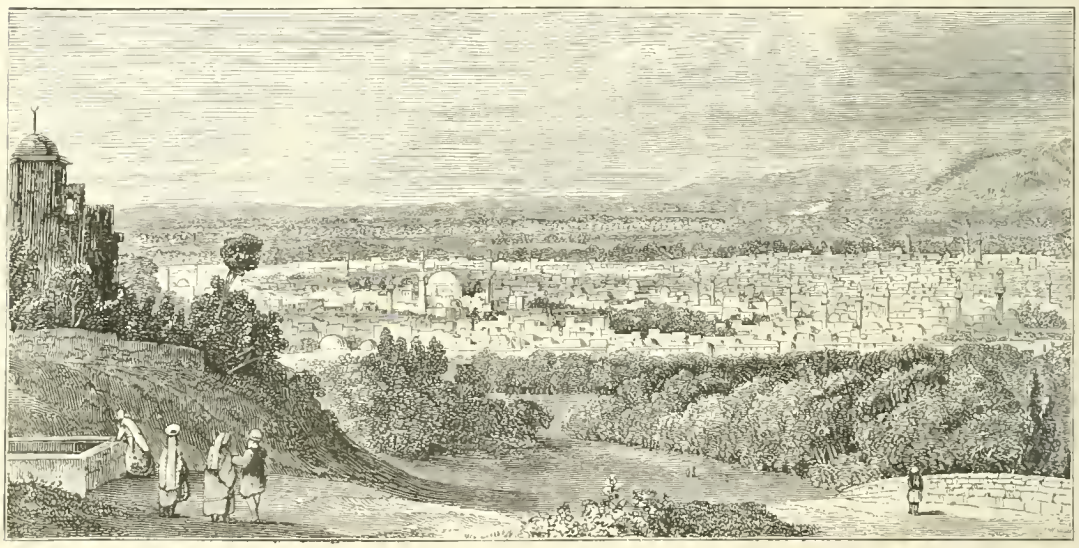
Bussorah is another town lower down the Tigris, which exports vast quantities of dates to Britain, where they are largely consumed in the "Black Country." Edinburgh, at the time when Dr. Johnson visited it, was not more full of nameless abominations than is Bussorah at the present day. Midhat Pasha tried the plan of instituting a municipal council to look after its affairs. The council still exists—just as the Turkish Parliament exists—but as to what it does, except making a prodigious fuss and sweeping the streets when a great official is expected, or after the European residents have presented a more than ordinary severe remonstrance, no one from Bussorah has as yet been able to enlighten us. In earlier times the city was very populous, but, like most towns in this region of misfortune, it has suffered greatly from war and pestilence. It was captured by the Persians, and then re-taken on the Sultan's behalf by the Imaum of Oman, in the course of which transactions the place suffered so severely that at present it is not of very great importance. The town has the additional misfortune of being built, not on the great river directly, but on a canal three miles from it, which is almost dry at low tide. An attempt has been made to induce the citizens to build on the shores of the river, and with some success. At Maagil, three miles above Bussorah, is a Turkish dockyard, from which is exported as much of the tribute or tax-grain as the Government can find a market for. But though the neighbouring region might produce almost any amount of wheat, it is cultivated at the season when the Euphrates, owing to bad management, bursts its banks 200 miles to the north-west, and converts the country into a marsh. The region is thus by no means healthy.

The brilliant-coloured fabrics of Aleppo—to take the places without much regard to their geographical order—are now, to a great extent, being crowded from the market by the cheaper Manchester and other European goods, and though the manufacture of gold and silver thread for weaving in the more costly webs is still carried on, Aleppo is no longer the prosperous place it was, and nowadays subsists mainly on the profit it makes as the *entrepôt* of South-eastern Asia Minor, as far as Macash and Malatia, and of the vilayet of which it is the capital. It is, however, getting very European-looking. Consuls of all nations reside here, and already at the hotels, kept by Germans, Saurkraut and Vienna beer can be purchased. Alexandretta is at present only important as the port of Aleppo, and Hamah, forty miles from the sea, is a busy centre for the cotton, silk, woollen, and goat-hair goods trade, as well as for the butter, grain, and wool produced in the surrounding

* Geary: "Through Asiatic Turkey," Vol. I., pp. 202–235.

country, and which finds a market at Tripoli, which, though only seventy miles to the south-west, takes five days' journey to reach.

Damascus (pp. 41, 52) is the oldest as well as one of the most beautiful of Eastern cities, and was until comparatively recently also not the least prosperous of them. Here were manufactured blades which became a proverb, and the brocades and other stuffs which made its weavers famous throughout the Empire. The city is now decaying. The massacres in the Lebanons, in 1860, struck a fatal blow at its prosperity; the Suez Canal extinguished its overland trade with Baghdad; and the Persian Gulf, China, and India were too much for it in the keen competition in silk and sesame-seed; while finally, the discovery of alazarine all but ruined its European trade in the madder grown



VIEW OF DAMASCUS.

in the vicinity of the city. Pilgrims also prefer a cheaper route to Mecca than through Damascus, while the drain of men and money in the late war has all but completed the ruin of the city. The town still contains a population of 150,000, but if the present state of matters continue the numbers must seriously diminish.* In a report to the Foreign Office the state of matters in this ancient city is described as wretched in the extreme. "House rent has declined thirty to fifty per cent., and large numbers of empty shops and houses in every part of the city testify to the general decline. It is difficult to depict the misery which abounds on every side, or to discover in what manner the greater number of the inhabitants manage to subsist. Household effects and articles of value have long ago been disposed of, and a loan of even a few pounds is an impossibility even among those called rich. The streets are filled with beggars, both Moslem and Christian, and that too in a city where a beggar was not long ago a rarity. Debts are no longer paid, the present circumstances being held an all-sufficient

* Burton and Drake: "Unexplored Syria" (1873), &c. &c.

excuse for deferring payment. Meanwhile old bills are renewed, with fifteen to eighteen per cent. interest added, and as the financial class is, almost without exception, heavily indebted to the other, the settlement of their large amount of indebtedness will be attended with difficulty when the proper time for such is held to have arrived. In the agricultural districts matters are also very bad, credit with the money-lender having long been cut

VIEW OF THE SOUTHERN RAMPARTS OF JERUSALEM.

off, owing to the encouragement given to the peasantry to withhold payment of their old obligations in view of the more pressing demands of the Government upon them."

Beyrout is the port of Central Syria, and up to the time when transport across the Desert to Baghdad ceased to be of commercial importance, it served for the provinces abutting on the Gulf the same purpose that Trebizond plays to Persia and Erzeroum. The harbour is not good, but of late years, notwithstanding the loss of the Babylonish and West Persian trade, Beyrout has increased in prosperity, owing to the great commercial activity which has prevailed throughout Syria—the capital excepted—and to the concentration in it of much of the goods traffic which formerly dribbled through the other smaller

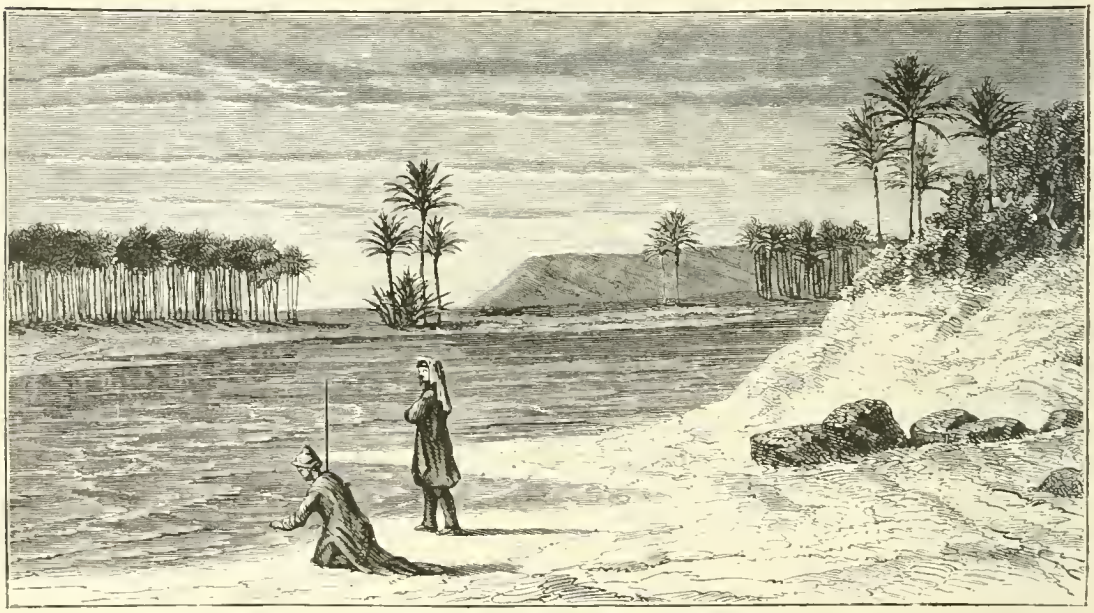
ports on the coast. The old harbour, south of the present one, is a much better port, so far as protection from the winds is concerned, but it has long been choked up, and nothing has as yet come of the proposals to clear it of the rubbish which encumbers it. Still, in spite of the difficulty of loading and unloading in an open roadstead, exposed to the full force of the west and north-west winds, Beyrout sends to England and France over half a million pounds' worth of silk, wool, skins, sponges, rags, and so forth, and carries on a considerable coasting trade in timber, firewood, charcoal, and straw. Foreign enterprise might do much for Beyrout, as for the rest of Asiatic Turkey; but the Giaour money-lender has been so often bitten that it is exceedingly doubtful whether he will very readily venture his money in these regions until there is a radical change in the system of government. Take two examples. An English company erected in Beyrout magnificent water-works, but the enterprise has commercially been a failure up to the time of writing, simply owing to the impossibility of enforcing the legal rights of the company. The same difficulty has been experienced in the case of the Smyrna Gas Works.

Jerusalem (p. 53), so often described in its historical and antiquarian aspects, hardly merits notice from its commercial bearings. Of trade, indeed, the most famous of Eastern cities has none, and it is doubtful whether this "deadest and dirtiest" of Turkish cities ever had much. The town now contains only about 18,000 people, and of these 10,000 are Mohammedans and Christians, chiefly of the Greek rite, the rest being Jews, mostly of a poor and degraded class. There is a little soap made in the town, chiefly for the Egyptian market, the home demand for the article being very limited; and in the neighbouring little town of Bethlehem, crucifixes, chaplets, beads, crosses, and other religious emblems, are made of olive-wood and mother-of-pearl, and sold, under the trade name of "Jerusalem ware," to the 8,000 or 9,000 pilgrims who annually flock to the Holy City during Easter time. The greater number of these devotees are from the East, but Russia sends a large contingent, a fact of which diplomatic advantage was taken during the disputes which preceded the Crimean war. Some olive-oil and grain are exported through Jaffa (p. 10), which is the chief port of Palestine, and moderately prosperous, in spite of the rock-dotted roadstead being an indifferent harbour. The orange-groves of Jaffa Mr. McCoan justly characterises as one of the sights of Palestine. They yield about 32,000,000 magnificent oranges annually, and the scent of their flowers is so intense as to be detected when the wind blows in that direction for miles inland, away over the Plain of Sharon on towards Ramlah. The road between Jaffa and Jerusalem, when not allowed to fall into disrepair—which is its normal condition—is a fair track. But the often-mooted railway is as yet in the far future; it does not promise to pay, for Palestine, as long as it is under the Turks, is likely to be what Palestine has been ever since the strong, just rule of the Romans departed from it. Rhodes forms the chief centre of trade in the Turko-Asiatic islands; what little we have to say, however, regarding the sea-spots of the Mediterranean may be more conveniently deferred until we treat of the Mediterranean as a geographical feature of Europe, and not as the seaward boundary of various nationalities and monarchies.

But all through Asia we come upon the fragments of cities, which have long ago been doomed to destruction. Among the most famous of these are Nineveh and Babylon,

once on a time occupying a large place in the world's history. Nineveh, or Ninus, formerly the capital of the great Assyrian Empire, was situated on the banks of the Tigris, opposite the modern town of Mosul (p. 49). It is said to have been founded by Nimrod, and in the period of its greatest prosperity to have been six miles in circumference. In the Book of Jonah it is described as an "exceeding great city of three days' journey," and one "wherein are more than six score thousand persons that cannot discern between their right hand and their left" (young children). It was finally destroyed by the Medes and Babylonians about 625 B.C., and when, not two centuries later, it was visited by Xenophon, so thoroughly had the work of destruction been carried on that only a few ruins remained. Still later, so completely erased were the great palaces of Sennacherib and Sardanapalus that their very site was unknown, until the excavations of Layard, Rassam, and others brought it to light. On the plain where the city stood the line of the walls can be traced by mounds thirty feet above the surrounding level. They still enclose a considerable area in which corn is grown, and into which the old gateway is yet to be detected, while the traveller, as he rides through the openings, once flanked by lofty towers, can recognise the latter in mounds still loftier than those which mark the walls. On the great artificial mound of Koyunjik, still sixty feet high and a mile in circumference, the palaces of Nineveh's two most famous kings were built, and at almost every step interesting remains turn up; albeit, at present, owing to the apathy or obstruction of the authorities, the excavations made have been only partial and unsatisfactory. Still, in spite of these, the nineteenth century will not only be marked by the discovery of the secret of the cuneiform inscriptions, but also by the disinterring of the wonderful masses of remains, sculptures, bricks, buildings, and tablets from the rubbish of Nineveh, Babylon, and the other ruined cities of Turkish Asia. Among these treasures of the past were the tablets from which the late Mr. George Smith was enabled to decipher the tradition of the deluge, lists of the gods, prayers and invocations, household accounts scratched on tablets of clay, and even title-deeds of property. The famous winged bulls were found under the ruins of the towers flanking the city walls. Two others were disinterred, but being found too large for removal were covered up with earth to preserve them from the weather. Sir Austen Layard's care was, however, all unavailing, for the Turkish authorities, conceiving the idea of conveying them to Constantinople, again unburied them. Finding, however, that they could not be removed, they sawed off their heads, and finally left them as they were, until at the present time idle boys from Mosul and the neighbouring villages use them as targets for stones, and have almost entirely disfigured these priceless monuments of antiquity—monuments, it may be added, which were not quite finished at the time when the Medes and Babylonians destroyed the great city. Unlike the ruins of Babylon, which, owing to the nitre in the soil, are never clothed with vegetation, the Nineveh mounds are all covered with grass. The Assyrians, moreover, were more skilful brick-makers than the Babylonians, and hence their handiwork has lasted longer. Even yet the material of the walls is as hard as chalk. No jewellery or treasures have been found in the rooms or ruins; and it is believed that though Sardanapalus set fire to his palace and perished in the ruins, the victor had time to loot the city before its final destruction (Plate LII.).

Babylon was, in like manner, the capital of the Babylonish Empire, which comprised the flat country about the Lower Euphrates, known in modern times as Irak-Arabi. It consists of a great plain continuous with that of Assyria, and bears marks of having been in the days of its ancient prosperity irrigated by numerous canals and artificial lakes, now for the most part dry. The soil yielded abundantly, and the human race in this favoured part of the world seem to have early attained a high grade of civilisation, luxury, and vice. Who founded the old city of Babylon is not very clear, but all are agreed that to Nebuchadnezzar it owed its period of greatest magnificence. After many vicissitudes the city decayed, fell into ruins, and all but disappeared, until at the present moment



VIEW ON THE BANKS OF THE EUPHRATES.

antiquaries are in doubt where its site was. Some consider Hillah, a town of 20,000 inhabitants, as its modern representative, while others, amongst whom must be numbered Sir Henry Rawlinson, have fixed on Niffer as the successor of ancient Babylon. In all likelihood, however, the former is the correct view. The ruins the Arabs still call Babel, which means literally the "Gate of God," for, as Mr. Geary very justly remarks, though Babylon bears a proverbial reputation for everything that is wicked, it had in early times a name for piety to which Nineveh made no pretensions. All around are dust-covered mounds, over which the wind drives the drifting sand. To these the Arabs have applied various fanciful names, which may or may not indicate the real character of the ruin. Here are the famous hanging-gardens of the uxorious Nebuchadnezzar, who, to please his Median wife, reared in her new home the semblance of the mountains to which she had been accustomed in her old one; there the canal which brought commerce and life to the busy city. But modern Babylon is a place of desolation, and though little or

nothing has been done to explore it, the ruthless Arabs are fast clearing off the more accessible remains. When Mr. Geary visited the site he found a native of Hillah digging into the ruins to find the remains of buildings which he might dispose of as bricks, and not without the hope that, "if God willed, he might find something and become a rich man." Meantime, while the bustling brick-merchant is loading up his donkeys with bricks the priceless monuments of history are disappearing for ever, owing to the ignorance and apathy of the Turkish Government, who, while sufficiently alive to the market value of the remains dug up by others, to hamper their exploration allow the vandals of Hillah to do as seems profitable in their own eyes. Babylon is desolate, more desolate even than Nineveh, the site of which is partly occupied by native hamlets, and every mound of which holds the graves of the villagers, who, unconscious of the greatness of those whose successors they are, have buried their dead in their crumbling tombs and palaces of kings. But in April Mr. Geary describes the usual woe-begone site of Babylon as even cheerful. The date groves along the banks of the Euphrates are bright in their spring verdure, and the plain itself is beginning to wave with crops. Irrigating canals cross it here and there, and though the nitrous soil of the mounds, and of patches on the plains, not permitting of grain growing, are white and desolate, the surface of the ground is, on the whole, green and pleasant to the eye. "The glad waters of the river flow on in the bright morning sunshine, with palm and mulberry hanging over its banks, drinking in sap and life. The great city, which counted its population by millions, and filled the world with a renown not yet forgotten, has disappeared under the dust of twenty centuries, but nature is as fresh and jocund as when Babylon was still unbuilt. Birds sing overhead in the pleasant spring air, butterflies flutter about in search of flowers, balmy odours regale the senses."* The "Babylonish captivity" took place 588 B.C., when Nebuchadnezzar carried King Zedekiah of Judah and the principal inhabitants captive to Babylon. They settled down among the people, and many acquired wealth and position, while at no time were they seriously oppressed. When Babylon fell before Cyrus (538 B.C.) the Jews were allowed to return home. Only the tribes of Judah, Benjamin, and Levi availed themselves of the permission, the "lost ten tribes" remaining, and ever after disappearing from history. Vain attempts have been made to discover the fate of these tribes; almost every people on the face of the earth, from the Afghan to the English, have at one time or another been confidently asserted by theorists to have sprung from them. It is just possible that the Nestorians of the mountains of Kurdistan are these people, but the greater possibility is that they became commingled and intermarried with the Assyrians, who are nearly allied to them in race, and in time lost their old nationality, and even the recollection of the land they came from. To this day there are plenty of Jews in all the towns on the site of Babylon, and many of these are undoubtedly lineal descendants of the tribes who were carried into captivity by Nebuchadnezzar, or in still

* "Through Asiatic Turkey," Vol. I., pp. 186–193; Rich: "Babylon and Persepolis" (1818), and "Personal Narrative" (1826); Mignan: "Travels in Chaldea" (1829); Vaux: "Nineveh and Persepolis" (1850); H. Rawlinson: "Herodotus" (1858); Prof. Rawlinson: "Five Great Monarchies" (1870); and the works of Layard, Loftus, Oppert, Ainsworth, Ménant, Lenormant, Sayce, and others.

earlier times by Salmanassar and other Assyrian monarchs, in accordance with the policy of the time, which was to remove the influential people of a conquered province to another part of the empire, where, isolated in the midst of a hostile, or at least strange race, they might be politically powerless, either there or in their former home.

Finally, among the lost cities of Turkish Asia are Ctesephon, and Selencia on the Tigris, and Troy, in the Troad, which Dr. Schliemann thinks occupied the site of Hissarlik, and from the ruins of which he has disinterred such an astounding mass of treasure. Even were the site in which these finds were obtained not the city which the learned German believes it to be, it must have been the home of a busy and wealthy population, whose very name and fame have passed away from the recollection or even out of the traditions of mankind.

Turkish Asia is divided into eighteen vilayets, or first-class provinces, and four minor governments, viz., Jerusalem, Lebanon, Djanik, and Divriki. Samos is now the only island of the Archipelago which retains its old autonomy, Cyprus, of course, being placed, for the present, in an exceptional position. The Hedjaz, in Arabia, is also a district enjoying peculiar immunities from the rule of the Pasha and the Kaimakan. Here, except in Jeddah and other small ports, with a narrow strip of country inland, no one but Moslems can live or tread, under pain of death. In this holy region, wherein are the sacred cities of Mecca and Medina, there is no law but the Sheriat, and though a vali residing in Mecca is the nominal ruler, the real governor is the Scheriff of that city. The spiritual head of the Mohammedans is supposed to be the Sultan, but in truth the guardian of Mecca, aided by his lieutenant in Medina, is a powerful rival to him, while in the Belâd-el-Haram his authority is supreme. The other Turkish province in Arabia is Yemen, but its government is in every way the same as that of the other vilayets. Since 1860 the Lebanons have been governed under an international statute by a Christian governor, nominated by the Porte for ten years, and assisted by a mixed council, nominated from among the Druze or Maronite people of the mountains. The scheme works well, and affords promise of a better future for the other mixed provinces of Turkey, when the present intolerable system of the majority being ruled by the minority shall have come to an end. Meanwhile, we may conclude our sketch of the far-stretching Turkish Empire in Asia by a brief description of Arabia, which is, however, only in part ruled by the Sultan.

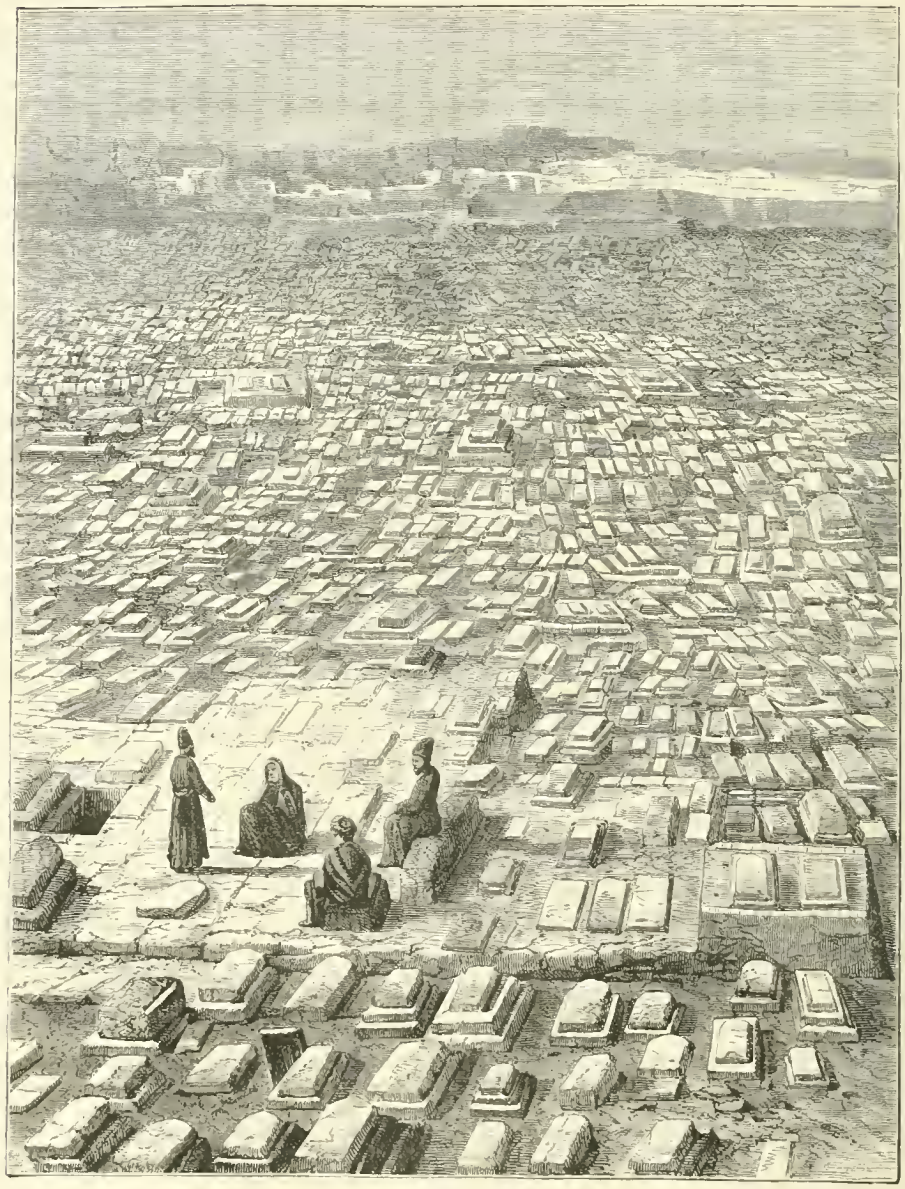
Arabia.

The extreme length of the peninsula is 1,300 miles, its extreme breadth 1,500 miles, but at its apex, where it joins on to the continent of Asia, it is rather less than 900 miles broad. Unless from its connection with the birth of Mohammedanism, Arabia has little interest. In like manner its political importance, unless for its connection with the prevailing religion of the East, will be *nil*, while its resources and weight in the world might be classed under the same category. Fiscally the rule of the Hedjaz, or holy district referred to, is a loss to the Porte, but the prestige attaching to its possessions is so great that the Turks have done well to always contend for this barren strip ever since they first acquired it, in 1517, as part of the Egyptian territory conquered by Selim I., and extended by his son and successor.

The Hedjaz stretches inland for about from 60 to 150 miles from the sea, and consists for the most part of a barren and sandy plain, backed inland by a hilly plateau or low mountain chain. The wells are few and scattered, and almost the only vegetation in it is found in the vicinity of these watering places, from which, brackish though the liquid is, the sole means of irrigating the country is supplied, unless when a few streams formed by the spring rains, but rapidly drying up under the hot summer suns, are able to supplement the scanty yield of moisture. Indeed, unless in the Desert itself, there is no part of Arabia so arid as the Hedjaz. To the general sterility of the region there are a few exceptions, the vegetation of these rare spots, however, forming a contrast so marked to the general desolation as to heighten the impression of the Hedjaz's barrenness rather than to relieve it. Over all this region the only routes of travel are camel tracks, the most important of which is the great one from Syria and Egypt, which, like the other, is determined by the number of wells found on the line of pilgrimage. There are a number of others winding over the country; but nowadays the great majority of the Egyptian pilgrims, as well as those from Barbary, European Turkey, and Asia Minor, avoid the long pilgrimage by land by crossing to Jeddah by sea, and then in walking the forty miles between that seaport and Mecca, or, still more easily, traversing it on mules, camels, or donkeys. In Mecca was born the Prophet, and one of the most sacred duties of the faith which he founded is that once at least every good Moslem shall make a pilgrimage to the Holy City, either in person or by proxy. Otherwise, the Koran enjoins, "he or she might as well die a Jew or a Christian." But this pilgrimage, though now so marked a feature in Mohammedan life, was in reality an after-thought of the Prophet. Finding that the Idolaters whom by eloquence and the sword he had won over to his new faith had for ages travelled from far and near to worship the Black Stone in the Kaaba (p. 64), and other idols round Mecca, he shrewdly turned the custom to account by ordering that in future the pilgrimage, shorn of many of its Pagan forms, should be part of their fresh faith. From that day to this the "Hadj" has continued with unabated fervour. A Moslem of the highest piety will, indeed, endeavour to visit Damascus, Jerusalem, Medina, and Mecca; but a journey to these four sacred places is costly, and occupies so long, that the majority of the Faithful confine their pilgrimage to the latter two, and in many instances to the last alone.

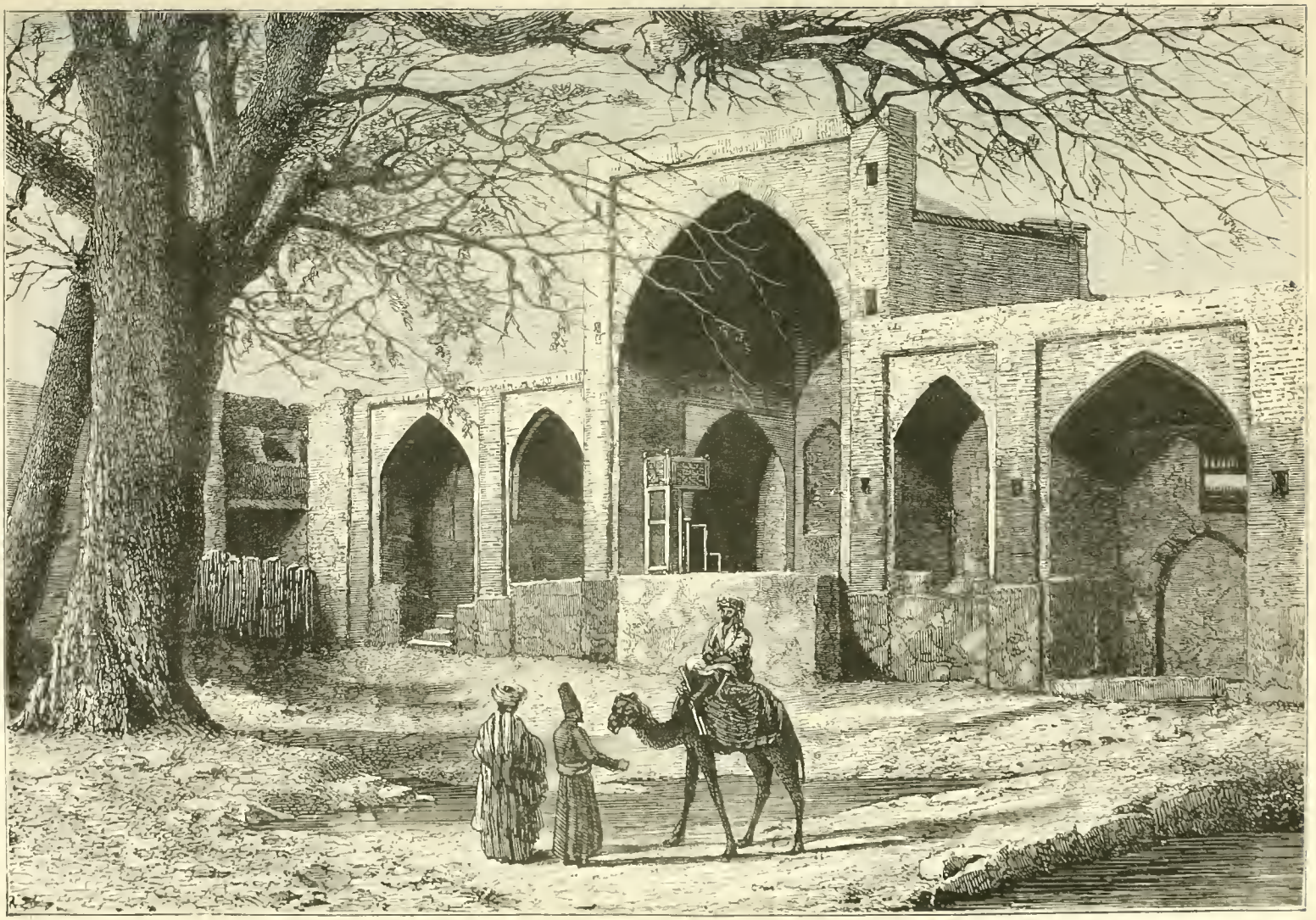
From every part of Islam they direct their steps thither, and as the twelfth month of the Mohammedan year is the period fixed for the celebration of the Mecca solemnities, distant devotees have often to set out from home two, three, or four months in advance in order to don the Ihrâm garment by the time the caravans are solemnly wending their way over the Hedjaz. Of late years the introduction of steamers has altogether revolutionised the mode of pilgrimage, by rendering it cheaper and easier than it was in days when long coast journeys had to be made on foot, or weary voyages undertaken in rude dhows and buglas. The "Pilgrim Trade" is now an important branch of commerce, and during the autumn gives employment to a large number of vessels. For instance, the British Consul reports that in 1879 eighty-six steamers, two sailing ships, and two hundred buglas, or native craft, landed an aggregate of thirty-eight thousand seven hundred and seventy-nine pilgrims at Jeddah, Yembo, and Leet, and in 1880,

from May to October, 12,000 pilgrims passed through Suez alone. But even this could comprise only a small part of those who had been to Mecca and Medina,



THE CEMETERY AT MECCA.

since the assemblage on the "Eid El Akbar," or closing feast at Múna, was computed to number over two hundred thousand devotees. These pilgrims comprise specimens of almost every nationality which professes the faith of "the Prophet," and even some, like the Malays, from the British territories, and the neighbouring peninsula



THE TOMB OF NADIR SHAH OF PERSIA AT MECCA.

and islands, who, though considered by the orthodox not very strict Mohammedans, always make a point of visiting Mecca, and there performing the regulation walks, runs, prayers, and other rites enjoined. In 1879 over eight thousand of them passed through Jeddah, a number much larger, indeed, than the contingent sent from Egypt, whence the sacred caravan and the holy carpet set out annually with such pomp, and the Government of which, in spite of its financial distress, contributes two hundred thousand pounds in gifts to the Kaaba Mosque and its custodians. From the shores of the Indian Ocean, from Kashmir, Scinde, Bengal, and the uttermost parts of India, arrive swarms of lithe pilgrims, whose dark skins are heightened by the griminess which they have acquired on the journey. From Bushire, on the shores of Persia, and Bahrein, on the other side of the Gulf, come Shiites and Sunnees, who for the time agree to differ; and from Timbuctoo, and the all but mythical region of the Upper Niger, the Soudan, Darfur, and the territories of the Sultan of Zanzibar and the Imaum of Muscat, drop in caravans of fierce black warriors whose faith in the Prophet is still loose, and Arab Sheiks whose religion does not always restrain their native propensity to loot. Bokhara is the "noble city," and its shrines are only second in holiness to those of Arabia; and the Valley of the Tigris is yearly visited by thousands of pious Shiites longing to pray at the tomb of Hussein, grandson of the Prophet, whose headless bones repose at Kerbella (p. 48). But even they must visit Mecca, and swell the yearly throng which lands at fanatical Jeddah, and passes inland over the stony soil on which no unbeliever is permitted to tread.

Such a heterogeneous mob can be witnessed in no other part of the world. Wild, half-mad dervishes from Central Asia rub shoulders with perfumed effendis from Constantinople, who shudder as their filthy co-religionists approach too closely. Pious mollahs from Bokhara curse under their breath the infidel dogs in blue jackets who stow them on deck, and can with difficulty be restrained from improper observations on the burnt father of the Shiite Khan who has put off until his hair turns grey the journey from Ispahan to Mecca. The Circassian and the Nogai, the Turkoman and the Kirghiz, the Afghan and the Indian, the Beeluch and the Brahui, here meet on common ground, to seek a common salvation and experience a common deterioration of morals. Benares and the other holy cities of the Ganges are noted for their loose views of the relations of man and man, and Chaucer and the mediæval satirists comment in caustic terms on the manners of those who pilgrimed to Canterbury, Walsingham, Compostella, or to our Ladye of Loretto. The Hadji is no exception to the rule of such gregarious religionists, being more pious than virtuous. To "cheat like a Mollah" is a Persian proverb, and in Central Asia nine-tenths of the current jests hinge on the knavery learned and listened to on the Mecca pilgrimage.

Nor are the morals of the Mecca citizens much better, for the principles of the religion being not always in a direct ratio to the morals of those near to them, the citizens of the holy town bear the reputation of being polished, gay, keen to the point of roguery, and owing to the swarm of visitors and the varied company whom they must accommodate in their dwellings, almost invariably accomplished linguists. The city stands in a sandy valley, separated from the Eastern desert by a bleak chain of low hills. Its population is nominally about 30,000, but at the season of the pilgrimage this

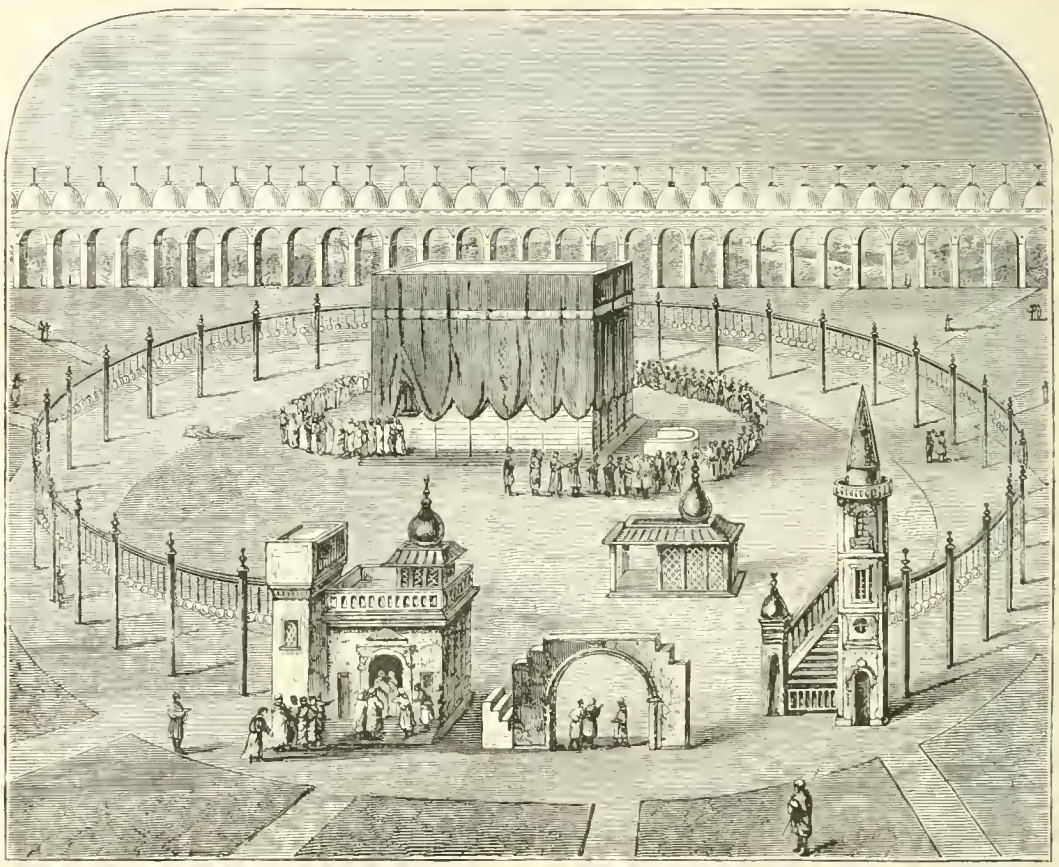
number will swell to 150,000 or even 200,000, out of supplying of whose wants the inhabitants grow wealthy. Jeddah, on the coast, is the port through which not only the majority of these pilgrims but all the supplies for them pass. The place is also fanatical in the extreme. The inhabitants rose in the year 1858 and massacred a large number of the Christian inhabitants, an outrage which procured for them the distinction of being visited by a British war-ship, and, after experiencing the effect of Giaour guns, of having to pay smartly for their murderous ebullition of fanaticism. Coffee is its chief export, and butter, rice, corn, and other stores are imported from Egypt, Abyssinia, and India, and it is feared, in spite of all protest to the contrary, slaves also from the Malay Archipelago and Central Africa.* Medina, or, to give its full name, Medina-el-Nebby, the city which contains the tombs of Mohammed, his daughter Fatima, and Abubekr and Omar, his immediate successors in the Caliphate, lies 140 miles inland, and contains a population of about 20,000, and bears the reputation of being, perhaps, the only town in the East from which dogs are entirely excluded. The city is much more pleasantly situated than Mecca, being surrounded by a belt of gardens watered by a full-flowing stream, though, except during the pilgrim season, when a good deal of trade is combined with a great deal of religion, the trifling commerce of the place is carried on through the little port of Yembo.

Yemen, the old Arabia Felix, extends down nearly to the British settlement of Aden, and owing to a more abundant rainfall and the presence of several streams, it is richer than the Hedjaz, and contains several towns which, like Loheïa, Hodeïda, Beït-el-Fakih, and Mocha, possess a considerable trade. The inland mountain districts which separate it from the great highland waste of the Nejd constitute one of the best parts of Arabia. In the Tehamah, as the southern part of the sea-bound region nearest Aden is sometimes called, the climate is almost unendurably sultry, but in the inland mountains, or Jâbal, it is cooler, and the soil, watered by many streams, blooms with a vegetation fresh and unwontedly plentiful for this arid land. In the whole of the Yemen the Sultan's authority is but slight, and, indeed, up to the year 1868 was barely recognised or claimed, but in the mountain region the very primitive people are yet ruled by their patriarchal local chiefs, who recognise the will of the Padisah only when it is backed by the Padisah's guns. In the Tehamah, on the contrary, rain only falls at intervals of several years, and were it not for the torrents flowing from the mountains the land would be entirely without any water, except what is got by digging deep in the dry beds of the stream-courses. Yet, compared with the rest of Arabia, it is bounteously gifted by Providence with fertility and wealth, and from the remotest ages has been one of the great centres of trade between Europe and the

* Buchardt, Wallin, and Burton are the only Europeans known to have visited the holy cities. In the "Personal Narratives" (1855) of the last-named energetic traveller will be found full details of these towns, and the works of Galland, De Maltzan, De Aucapitaine, D'Avril, Ray, Pitts, and others, will also supply much curious information. Mr. Winifred Blunt was told by the Ruler of Medina that Infidels, so long as they conformed to the customs of Islam, ran really little danger either in that city or Mecca. Should, however, a Jew or a Christian appear avowedly as such, he would assuredly be killed, as the scandal would then be too great.

East. The mountains and valleys have been famous since, in the days of Ezekiel, the merchants of Shebah and Raamah sold in the fairs of Tyre its spices, gold, and precious stones. In later times the English have recognised its importance by occupying Aden and Perim, and thus commanding one of the entrances to the Red Sea.*

The Turks include in their empire all the former territories of the Wahabee Empire, giving to their recent conquests on the bounds of El Hara the title of the "Vilayet of Nejd."

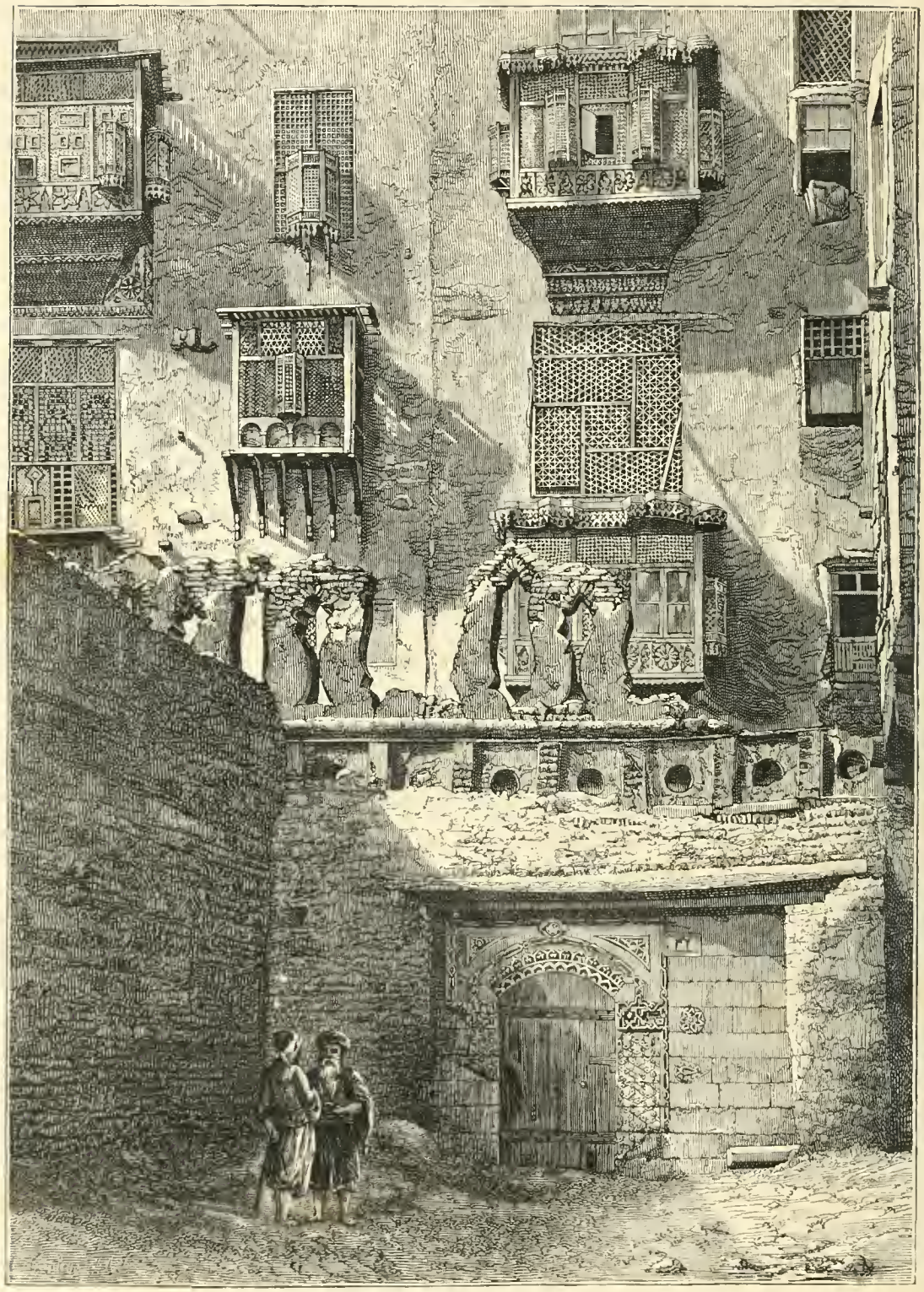


THE KAABA, OR "KISSING STONE" ENCLOSURE AT MECCA.

But though the English Foreign Office, judging from their official action, seem to think that Central Arabia is a Turkish province, Mr. Blunt, who is the latest traveller who has visited it, assures us that the term Nejd is a purely geographical expression, in no sense political, and, as commonly accepted in Arabia, means all that high-lying district included within the Nefuds, or Northern Deserts. It also means highlands, but it has also a political significance, as Sir Lewis Pelly points out, for it also comprises the territories of the former Emir of Wahabee, around the old Wahabee capital of Dereyah, and the new capital of Riad.†

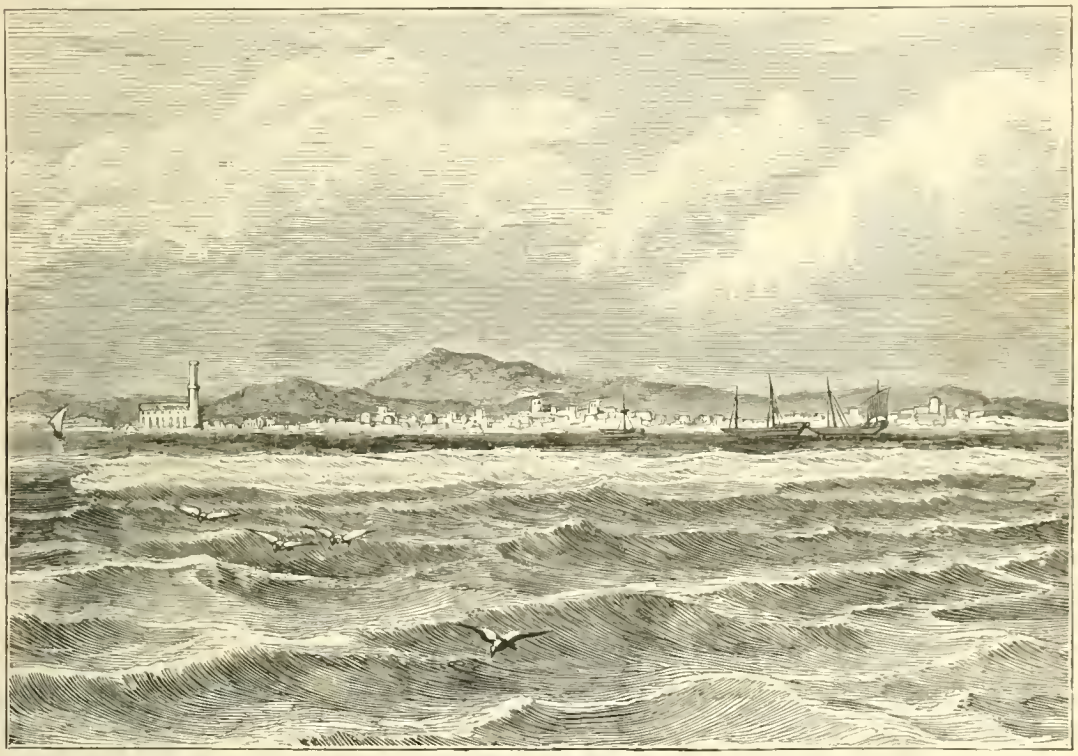
* See an exhaustive account of Yemen, with map, in *Ocean Highways: The Geographical Review*, n.s., Vol. I., pp. 397-404.

† *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1880, pp. 83—102



THE FAÇADE OF A HOUSE IN THE OLD PART OF CAIRO.

Aden (p. 68) is the other portion of Arabia held by a European power. It consists mainly of a fortified town on the south coast, 118 miles from the entrance to the Red Sea. It was captured in 1839, and has ever since been held by Great Britain as a portion of the government of Bombay. In addition to the "city" there is a territory of about thirty-five square miles, and consisting of volcanic hills, attached to it. The colony yields absolutely nothing, for the barrenness and nakedness of the soil admit of no qualification: even the water drunk has to be caught in tanks during the occasional rains. But, owing to its position between Asia and Africa, it is almost as important in its way as is



VIEW OF MOCHA, ARABIA.

Gibraltar from a military point of view. The territory—like Jebel Hasan, another promontory on the western side of Aden, and about four miles distant*—is held by tribes in British pay, though the whole population, including the garrison, does not number 30,000. Its exports to the United Kingdom consist mainly of coal for the steamers, and goods which have accumulated here as a *depôt* for the surrounding countries, while its imports are chiefly for the use of the garrison, or for sale to the towns and villages on the coast and interior, the inhabitants of which use the free port of Aden as their trading place. A few miles inland the country is fresher, and in the green valleys there are gardens refreshed by running streams, which supply vegetables and flowers for the garrison.

* The fortified rock of Perim, at the entrance to the Red Sea, and the barren Kurian Murian, off the south coast, are also British.

Aden, it cannot be denied, is hot, though the numerous improvements effected of late years have rendered this all but impregnable fortress of England much more agreeable as a place of residence than it was when first we took possession of it. The landing-place is about four miles from the town proper, and the road hither is marked by many truly Oriental features. Long droves of camels, laden with coffee and spices for exportation or with goods for the warehouses, donkeys similarly burdened, and escorted by wild Bedoweens, or by the semi-negroised natives of the Peninsula, are met with at every step, while once in Aden itself, the shops, filled with lion, leopard, and hyæna skins, and with feathers of the ostrich and other Asiatic and African birds, give a distinct local colouring to the place, with its water-tanks hewn out of the solid rock, and its underground tunnels intended to facilitate the passage of friends and bar the entrance of foes.

The rest of Arabia is of less interest. Mr. Palgrave, to whose explorations we owe so much of our knowledge of the interior, considers it, on the whole, as a barren country, consisting in general of an elevated table-land, backed up by low mountains to the west, and rising gradually in the direction of the east and south, in the latter of which portions it is again bordered by a second and loftier mountain range. With the exception of Jebel Akhdar, in Oman, the mountains are almost wholly bare on the seaward side, but, especially in Yemen and the southern districts, they are often fertile on their slopes facing the interior. Behind them, however, lies an uninterrupted ring of sterile sandy desert, broadest in the south and east, and narrowest towards the west and north, where its burning wastes are now and then broken by a few rocks. Behind this belt Mr. Palgrave describes the existence of a series of table-lands, "undulating in long slopes and intersected with deep valleys, the former rich in pasturage, the latter in field and garden produce. This central plateau constitutes about one-third of the total superfices of the peninsula; the desert ring another third; the coast ranges make up the rest."

The geographical divisions of Arabia have already been noted, though the *Sinaitic Peninsula* (p. 40), claimed by Egypt, deserves a word in addition, owing to the many sacred associations which cluster around it. It is a mere collection of "naked rocks and craggy precipices, intersected by long narrow defiles and sandy valleys, in which tamarisk bushes, dwarf acacias, thorny shrubs, and some kinds of euphorbias are almost the only vegetation." In a few favoured spots may be seen a cluster of date palms, and after the spring rains a few blades of grass make their appearance, only to wither under the scorching heats of summer. Running streams there are none, unless a rivulet or two formed by the rains, and which dry up in the course of the next three months, are to be considered in this light, but under the shelter of some rock there is an occasional standing pool of stagnant water, or a well filled with water of as brackish a character as that in the rest of the desert. In the centre of this desert rises a mountain group capped with snow every year, and one point of which is generally believed to be the Biblical Sinai.

The other political divisions of Arabia are not of much geographical or political importance. Outside the Turkish and English territories, the country is broken up into a great number of more or less unimportant Arabic chieftainships, the heads of which

assume the title of Sheykh, Sultan, Imam, Walee, or Emeer—variously spelled Emir and Ameer—according to their proclivities. A great portion of the people are Bedoweens, or wandering tribes, the "Ahl Hadr," or dwellers in fixed abodes, constituting about six-sevenths of the population of Arabia proper. The vast proportion of the Arabs are Mohammedans, and in Nejd, Yemameh, Hareek, Aflaj, and Jebel Aseer, where the Wahabee, or reformed doctrines, prevail, they are of the strictest and most orthodox sects. But along the Persian Gulf a great portion of the people belong to the Khowarij, or "seceders," whose laxity is a scandal to the true believer, whilst in some of the more secluded parts of the country vestiges of paganism still linger. Arabia is, in truth, little known, in spite of the large number of books which have been written on it, and its semi-civilised races continue to live in a very primitive condition. Slavery is one of the institutions of the country, an active traffic in negroes being still carried on along the coast of the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea, in spite of the vigilance of the British cruisers and the nominal prohibition of the Turkish and Egyptian Governments.

The only one of the many petty Arabic Governments which need be noticed is *Oman*, on the extreme south-eastern point of the peninsula, and as large as England and Wales combined. The interior is broken up by a plateau-like range of mountains, which give rise to many small streams, few of which, however, reach the coast, being swallowed up by the thirsty soil before they have coursed any great distance. Still, Oman is the richest, and in some respects the most important part of Arabia. During six months in the year the climate is like that of an oven, but during the rest of the twelve months it is comparatively cool, and on the hills even pleasant, all the year round. As in the other fertile parts of Arabia, cocoa-nuts, dates, mangoes, coffee, sugar-cane, apricots, peaches, maize, cotton, indigo, and other tropical products grow abundantly, both for home use and for exportation; and though lead and copper are mined, the energy and skill required for the proper development of the mines are still wanting. The central government of the Imam is so weak that the eight provinces into which his kingdom is divided enjoy almost perfect independence, the taxes which they pay being viewed mainly in the light of a tribute paid by suffragans to their suzerain. Oman has for ages remained a comparative stranger to the numerous revolutions which the rest of Arabia has undergone. Kingdoms and empires have been set up and pulled down within its arid bounds, but since Muscat was re-taken in the middle of the seventeenth century from the Portuguese, who had occupied it since 1508, the Yaarebah Princes, who had never ceased to have authority in the interior, continued to reign for the next century. Then the Persians became for a few years masters, until Ahmed Ebn-Saood, a skilful soldier, not belonging to the reigning family, contrived to expel them, and was in gratitude elected Imam. This office his descendants have up to the present day contrived to retain. At the beginning of the century the Omanee kingdom was at the height of its glory. It comprised not only the territories it at present consists of, but, in addition, a considerable tract of the Arabian Peninsula, many of the islands of the Persian Gulf, of the best parts of the shores of that sea on both sides, and of a long strip of the East African shore, and of the islands of Socotra (now under

British protection), and Zanzibar, which, since the death of Sultan Saood, in 1804, has been under an independent Arab ruler. But though the present more circumscribed kingdom has been at various times desolated by dynastic civil wars, and has embroiled itself with its powerful neighbour, the British, it is at present in a fairly prosperous condition, and is well able to oppose the now feeble encroachments of her Wahabee neighbours on her western frontier.

Muscat is the name of the capital and chief town; hence, Sayyid Toorki, the sovereign of Oman, is usually styled by the Europeans the "Imam of Muscat." Its

VIEW OF ADEN.

present population numbers about 40,000, and is as mixed as any in the East. Arabs naturally predominate, but many of the shopkeepers are Banians from Western India, and Beloochees from Mekran form the body-guard of the sovereign, owing to the fact that, being indifferent to the political squabbles of the country, they are faithful to the hand from which they receive their pay. Nubians, Somalees from the opposite African coast, Persians, and Abyssinians, in addition to two or three Europeans, are also represented in the motley population of this Arab metropolis. The city itself is sufficiently interesting. It is surrounded by old Portuguese fortifications, and the houses still recall the time when it was held by the Iberians. The lower portion is entirely devoted to lumber, and the day and sleeping apartments are on the upper floor. The amphitheatre of hills which shelter the harbour on three sides cramp the town

into a small space. Hence the houses are built together as closely as it is possible for them to be, and the whole city does not contain a street along which any four-legged animal larger than a dog or cat could move. It is, indeed, difficult for two people to pass in these narrow lanes — in which a person standing at one side can shake hands with his neighbour lounging in his door opposite — without rubbing shoulders. In the upper chambers the inhabitants sleep, though during the terrible heat of summer every one camps out at night on the roofs, and during the period when the fiery furnace is at its worst the sleepers are watered like a plant in order to keep tolerably cool, a fact from which, Mr. Geary remarks, they account for the prevalence of muscular rheumatism in Muscat! Yet the place is affirmed to be reasonably healthy. The streets are roughly swept, and the universal use of dry earth and ashes, combined with the exceeding dryness of the air, prevents the devastating epidemics which are so fatal in the dirty undrained towns so universal in the East. Finally, the presence of a British Resident and the occasional visit of gunboats keep the city in decent order, though the sense of insecurity caused by the long civil disturbances of the kingdom has of late years seriously affected the trade of the place.

Halwa, composed of sugar, ghee, or clarified butter, and the gluten of sesame-seeds, is a dainty for which Muscat is famous. It is palatable and highly nutritious, and probably accounts for the comfortable, well-fed, and prosperous air of the native population. Squalor is not evident, and beggars never dog the steps of the visitor, as is so universally the case over most of the East. Mr. Geary describes the bazaars as thronged with Bedoweens from the desert, who leave their horses and camels at the large town of Mattra—three miles to the north-west—and come by boat to Muscat, the narrow and tortuous defiles of the city rendering it impermeable for quadrupeds. These Arabs are fierce individuals and formidable swordsmen. More than once they have threatened the capital from the surrounding hills, and though the latter are said to be perfect sanatoria, the broiled denizens of Muscat, owing to the raids of these wild warriors, are debarred from taking advantage of their refreshing breezes. The imports of Oman—chiefly through Muscat, though some trade is also done at Barka, Sohar, and Sharja, and in the interior through Nezwah and Bereymah—are valued at about £300,000, and the exports at something like four times that amount. With a more settled government this commerce could be greatly increased. But at present it is only the influence of the British Resident, and more especially of the gunboats which he has at his command, that holds the rival factions in check, and prevents the lawless marauders from the interior sacking a city which in their eyes holds wealth all but fabulous.*

* The "Administration Report for 1878-79" of Lieut.-Col. Ross, Political Resident in the Persian Gulf, contains, in addition to accounts of the Bahrain Islands and Arabian Persia, a synopsis of the geography of Oman, by Col. Miles, with a review of authorities from the time of El-Edresi to that of Desbrowe and Powell in 1865.

CHAPTER V.

Africa: The Red Sea and its Islands; The Northern Kingdoms; Abyssinia; Egypt.

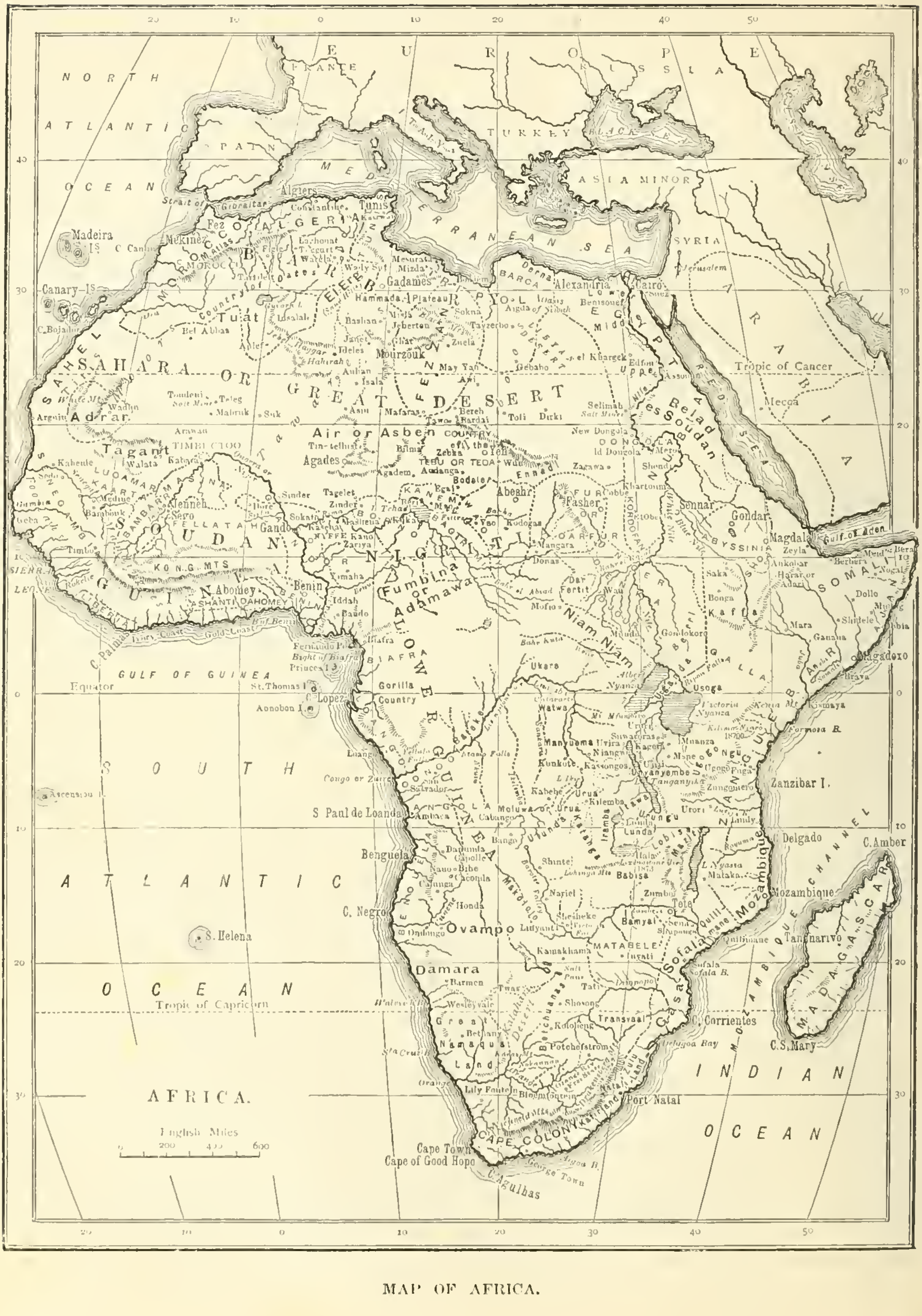
Between Arabia and the African coast lies the long gulf, or inland salt water, familiarly known as the Red Sea. In reality it is a basin, which forms the lowest part of the deep valley, bounded on the east by the Arabian hills and on the west by the African highlands. In all likelihood, the sterile sandy tracts on either shore before the highlands are reached at one time also formed the bed of the sea. At present the gulf is about 1,400 miles in length, and from 20 to 230 miles in breadth, while its greatest depth varies from 1,054 fathoms to from 3 to 30 or 40 in the shallow Gulf of Suez. Its shores are, however, everywhere bordered by coral reefs, which, combined with the prevalence of rocks, shoals, and violent winds, make the navigation of the Red Sea dangerous. The coast line, broken up by bays, gulfs, and promontories, forms the seaward boundary of Abyssinia and part of Arabia and Egypt, but there are also a number of islands in the sea itself which are not without political or geographical interest. Most of these islets are detached, but the Farsans and Dhalaes are in groups. The former, lying near the eastern shore, have several good harbours, were it not for the coral reefs all around them. The Dhalaes, which consists mainly of one large island, are of coral, and in general flat and sandy, but are inhabited by a considerable colony of fishermen, who trade with Loheïa and Ghizan on the Arabian mainland (p. 63), their fish, sharks' fins, turtle, and pearl being readily exchangeable for millet and dates. The Italians have formed a settlement on the Abyssinian side, thus adding to the commercial importance of the Red Sea shores. But it is not so much a region of trade as a highway for merchants from one part to another that this old sea is famous. From the earliest times it has been a familiar route for ships, and since the cutting of the Suez Canal through the narrow isthmus which separates its waters from those of the Mediterranean it has become still more important, and recovered much of the traffic which the discovery of the route round the Cape of Good Hope had diverted into a different channel from that used by the older traders. Its climate at certain seasons is intolerably hot, but not unhealthy; and unless the construction of a railway from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf should again affect it, the Red Sea, a name which the Greeks applied to the whole Indian Ocean, is likely to increase rather than to decrease in importance. It may be added that the popular name has been variously explained. It has been supposed to be derived from the red colour of the rocks, from the presence of a minute red weed in its waters, or from the reddish tinge imparted to the shallow sea by the underlying red sandstone and coral. Any one of the explanations may be accurate, or, just as

possible, the name may be due to some accidental circumstance which has now been forgotten: what, it is really not of great importance.

In Northern Africa, along the shores of the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, there have been from early periods civilised communities, either independent or as the colonies of European Powers. From Socotra, an island at the mouth of the Red Sea, to Suez, at its other extremity, nearly every footbreadth of the country has at one time or another changed hands or been fought for by rival powers. Socotra, 150 miles east of Cape Guardafui, the eastern extremity of Africa, is subject to the Sultan of Keshin, on the opposite shore of Arabia, and contains an area of only 1,310 square miles, its interior being occupied by a pastoral table-land, elevated 700 to 1,900 feet above the level of the sea. Its climate is more varied and temperate than that of most of the immediate mainland, while the granite peak, 4,650 feet high, which exists near the Northern Point, would form a kind of sanatorium were it more easily accessible. The native population is reckoned at about 5,000, but the capital, Tamarida, on the north coast, does not contain over 100 inhabitants. Its riches are "dragon's blood," a kind of resinous vegetable astringent, dates, tamarinds, and, above all, the famous Socotrine aloes, which for centuries have been esteemed over all others. But it is not owing to its products, but to its position on the direct highway to India, that Socotra has, since the year 1500, excited the greed of various European Powers. Finally, after several ineffectual attempts to obtain possession of it, in 1876 the Sultan of Keshin engaged, in consideration of a small annual subsidy paid by Great Britain, not to cede the island to any other nation, and never to permit a settlement to be made on it without the permission of the English Government.

Perim we have already mentioned as a dependency of Aden (p. 61). It yields nothing, being simply a bare volcanic table-land covered with loose stones, but unlike Socotra, which, being exposed both to the north-east and south-west monsoons, is neither on the one side nor on the other safe anchorage, Perim possesses an excellent harbour. The climate, though often very hot, is healthy, but the garrison have to bring not only their ordinary provisions, but even the water they require from the mainland. Fish are, however, plentiful, and turtles are now and then caught. Otherwise the island is of importance as a military station, in which capacity it has been used permanently since 1857, though as early as 1799 it was occupied by British troops.

Of the shores of the Red Sea we have already partially spoken. One side is entirely occupied by Arabia, the other is divided up among various Powers. The eastern portion forms the Somali and Galla country, inhabited by lawless, semi-savage tribes, owning no man their master; adjoining is the once famous kingdom of Abyssinia, shut out from the sea by the strip of Egyptian territory of which Massowah is the capital; while still further towards the west is Nubia, now under the Egyptian Government, and Egypt proper, or the country drained, watered, and fertilised by the Lower Nile. Bordering the Mediterranean is the Turkish vilayet of Tripoli, which, unlike Egypt, is still governed as an integral part of the Empire, and Tunis, a State tributary to the Sultan; then comes Algeria, an Arab country,



MAP OF AFRICA.

now forming the chief colony of France. We next arrive at Morocco, a Mohammedan country, still independent, whose inland boundaries are, like those of most of the African coast-lying kingdoms, very uncertain. Bordering the Atlantic is a region which is broken up among various semi-barbarous tribes, until we come to Senegambia, in which, though the chief European settlements are those of the French, both Portugal and Great Britain have colonies. Immediately adjoining this is Sierra Leone, a British possession under the Colonial Office, though one can scarcely class it as a colony, almost the only white people in it and the other West African colonies being the officials sent out from England, the bulk

ARAB "DHOWS" ON THE RED SEA.

of the inhabitants being negroes, either natives or from other parts of the continent. We now come to Upper Guinea, the interior of which is as independent as the whites who have found settlements on the coast care to allow it to be. Here and there civilised settlements have been carved out of its pestilent shore. Then adjoining Sierra Leone is Liberia, a republic of American negroes, and immediately south of it the Gold Coast, of which Cape Coast Castle is the capital. This is also a British possession. Behind it lie the kingdoms of Ashantee and Dahomey, and the numerous more or less powerful Pagan and Mohammedan kingdoms on the banks of the Niger, which pours its waters into the Gulf of Guinea. The "kings" of Bonney and Calabar are nominally independent, but owing to the presence of numerous British palm-oil traders on "the rivers," they may be said to "enjoy" only a *quasi* right to do what seems good in their own

eyes. Fernando Po Isle is, however, Spanish; so also is Annobon, further out in the gulf. Prince's Isle and St. Thomas are Portuguese, and to the south of the independent territory on the Gaboon River in Lower Guinea come the Portuguese possessions on the mainland. These are met by the British South African colonies, and by the native territories under British prohibition or authority. The Cape Colony occupies the southern tip of the continent, while along the east coast the semi-independent country of the Kaffirs, known as Kaffraria, Natal, and Zulnland, with the exception of the Portuguese territory at Delagoa Bay, abut. Behind lies the Orange Free State, an independent Dutch Republic, and the Transvaal, which until recently was in the same condition, but is now a British colony. The coast further to the north is occupied by various native tribes, including those of Sofala and Mozambique, though on Lake Nyassa, and on the Shire, which flows out of the lake, and is the chief tributary of the Zambesi, there are British missionary and trading settlements. Passing through the Mozambique Channel, which lies between the great island of Madagascar and the mainland, we pass, or, aided by a vivid mental vision, come in sight of, various tiny isles, which, like the Amiranti and Seychelles, are British, or, like the Comoro or Johanna Isles, are practically so, we come to the island of Zanzibar, which, with the adjoining mainland, is under the rule of an Arab Sultan. Opposite is the highway into the interior and towards the Great Lakes, which, though discovered as it were only yesterday, are now getting familiar as the home of missionaries and traders more humane than the Arab slave-hunters. After this we arrive again at the more or less independent Somali and Galla country.

To describe all these enormous regions in detail would be tedious, and perhaps not proportionately profitable. We shall, accordingly, taking the route sketched out, say a little about each. First, then—beginning with Abyssinia—we must speak of the more or less civilised kingdoms, colonies, and provinces of North Africa, next of the French, British, Spanish, and Portuguese colonies, and of the independent territories on the west coast. South Africa will call for a somewhat fuller account; after which, with a sketch of the Arab and other communities on the east coast, we shall arrive at the port from which we set out. The interior may demand a few pages, and the results of the exploration of this portion of the continent during late years will enable us to sketch in broader outline the general physical geography of the "dark continent" than we could while the component parts of it were less familiar to the reader.

Abyssinia.

Abyssinia—the ancient Ethiopia—is that table-land which lies between the hot low Afar or Danakil country, skirting the southern shores of the Red Sea, and the equally torrid Egyptian Soudan. In configuration it differs from the rest of Africa, and its inhabitants are in many respects also a race by themselves. The country is wedge-shaped, and though fully three times the size of England, it is now much smaller than it once was, owing to the encroachments of the Egyptian Government having driven the Abyssinians almost entirely to the highland regions among the valleys

and table-lands, of which they are at present confined. Hence the condition of ignorance and semi-barbarism in which the nation has sunk,* its scant trade, and, in spite of its well-watered and even fertile valleys away from the hot, unhealthy, arid coast, its thinly scattered population of three or four millions, only a few of whom live in towns, or engage in any other occupation save the rudest agrieultnre. The flat country between the highlands, or El-Mokâdah, of "Habessinia"—derived from the Arab Habeseh, signifying mixture or confusion—has no very marked features. It varies in breadth from only a few miles in the north to over 200 in the south. Massowah, the capital, and indeed the only place in it of any consequence, is a small Arab town, on an island about a quarter of a mile from the shore, entirely without water, and notoriously one of the hottest places on the face of the earth. The water used is brought from Makulla, a large village four miles inland, where most of the Indian and Arab merchants live during the hot months, going to Massowah in the day only. The Abyssinian table-land, being only a part of the great plateau which skirts the eastern side of the continent, has no very definite limits towards the south, while in the north it insensibly passes into the highlands which border the Delta of the Nile. Towards the east it rises almost abruptly to a height of 7,000 or 8,000 feet, unbroken by any river, for all the Abyssinian tributaries of the Nile flow towards the westward, the beautiful Lake Tzana, or Dembea, which forms the reservoir of the white Nile, lying in this part of the plateau. Though the average height of the divide between the east and west of Abyssinia is about 8,000 feet, some peaks in Samen are said to reach 15,000 feet, and several in various parts of the country are 12,000 and 13,000, while to the southward are many plateaux more than 10,000 feet above the sea.†

Thus the higher elevations are capped with perpetual snow, and the climate of the "Degas," or highest belt, is cool, and even frosty, with good pasturage for oxen, goats, and sheep, but with little other vegetation or forest growth. Lower down, a climate like that of Italy or of Greece is enjoyed. Corn and the fruits of semi-tropical countries flourish abundantly in the fertile and sufficiently watered soil, and in these valleys live the greater part of the Abyssinian people. In this part of the country—the "Waina-Degas," as it is locally called—the temperature is rarely oppressive, being generally cooled by the light breezes which blow over the uplands. During the rainy season it is cool, and even during the rainfalls there is never that deluge of water with which the dwellers in the tropics are so familiar. At night the cold is sometimes intense, though it ought to be noted that, in spite of Abyssinia proper being one of the most salubrious countries in the world, there is sometimes in the low valleys before and after the rainy season a malarious influence which brings on low fevers, particularly dangerous to unacclimatised strangers. The cold season extends from October to February, the hot from March to the middle of June, and the wet from this date to the end of September, during which period the monsoon blows and the country gets refreshed, and the streams which contribute to the "swelling of the Nile," hundreds of miles away in Lower Egypt, gain strength and fulness. The "Kollas," or lower

* An account of the habits of the Abyssinians is given in "Races of Mankind," Vol. II., pp. 174-200.

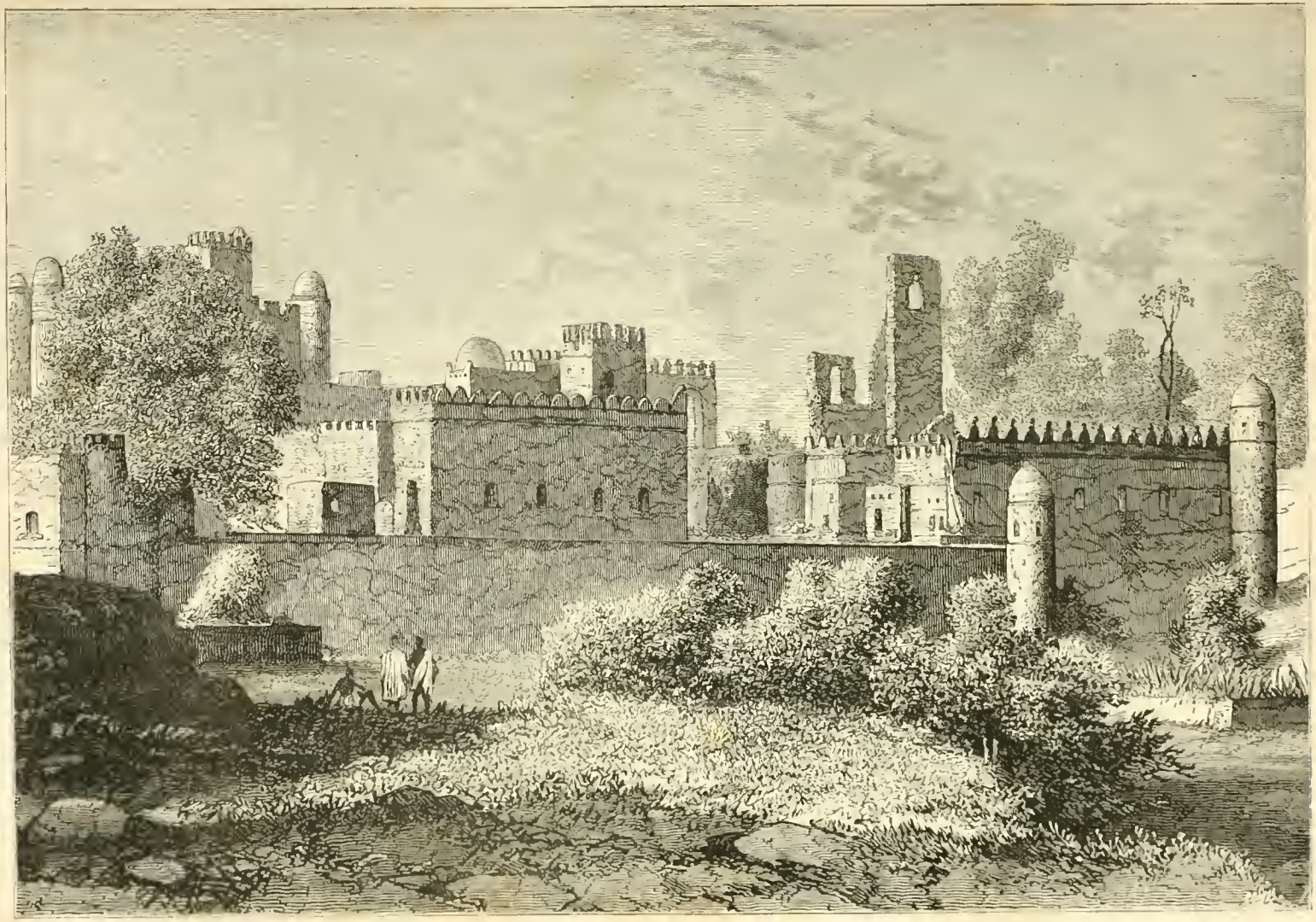
† Blanford: "Observations on the Geology and Zoology of Abyssinia made during 1867-8" (1870), p. 151.

portion of the plateau, may be characterised as tropical, the plants and animals being those of the neighbouring part of Africa, while the arid nature of the sea-shore has

A VIEW IN ABYSSINIA.

already been indicated. It may be mentioned that in the southern part of the country there is a second rainy season in the beginning of the year.

The appearance of the country in the north is described by Mr. Clements Markham as comparatively bare, with trees and bushes scattered over it, and clumps and groves



THE ROYAL PALACE AT GONDAR, THE ANCIENT CAPITAL OF ABYSSINIA.

occurring only round villages and churches. "But the glens and ravines on the plateau sides, each with its bright spring, are often thickly wooded, and offer a delicious contrast to the open country." The central and southern parts are more fertile. In some districts three crops are raised annually, and in addition to great quantities of wheat, maize, and legumes, there is grown over considerable tracts the teff, a species of grass (*Poa abyssinica*), from the seeds of which most of the bread used in this country is made. "Tocusso," another bread grain (*Eleusine Tocusso*), coffee, which grows wild, the vine, and the sugar are also cultivated, in addition to various sub-tropical fruits like the date, orange, lemon, pomegranate, and banana. The people of Abyssinia are essentially a mixed race—an African graft on a Caucasian stock, which is perhaps closely allied to that of the Bedoween Arabs. The Gallas of the south, many of whom are still idolaters—though a number have adopted Mohammedanism and the corrupt semi-Judaic semi-Greek Christianity of the Abyssinians—are a different race from the people of the north. The Falashas of Samen are of Hebrew origin, while the Witos, who fish in the great Tzana Lake, and hunt the hippopotamus and rhinoceros, are probably the aborigines of the country. At all events, they are distinct from the other races of Abyssinians, by whom they are despised.

Gondar has for long been the nominal capital of Abyssinia. It is built on the mountain slope which descend towards the lake just mentioned, and is in no way remarkable except for the ruins of a fine-towered palace, erected for the early kings of Ethiopia by Italian architects (p. 77). But as the monarch is almost invariably carrying on war with some one or other of his rebellious suffragans, the real seat of government is usually some military camp pitched on the mountain plateaux, at a greater or less distance from Gondar. Adowa is a market town, over 6,000 feet above the sea, and Axum, a few miles west of it, is mainly interesting for its numerous monuments and ruins, including the crumbling cathedral built by the Portuguese, who very easily managed to find an entrance to and a welcome in this country, though for long they have possessed no influence in any part of it. Ankober is the capital of Shoa, in the south, the chief of which is still partially independent; while Magdala, once so famous as the scene of that last episode in the life of the Emperor Theodore, when it was stormed by the British in 1868, is built on a mountain in the south-eastern corner of the central portion of the country. The trade of Abyssinia is insignificant, cotton weaving, leather tanning, and the manufacture of parchment, and to some extent that of brass and iron, also comprising nearly everything in the way of arts outside those of the grazier and agriculturist. Through the port of Massowah—the possession of which by the Egyptians has several times in the course of the last few years created disturbances between the Khedive and King Johannes, who, since the death of Theodore, has managed to gain control of the whole country—foreign goods, consisting of lead, tin, copper, silk, gunpowder, glass, carpets, and coloured cloths, find their way into the country, in exchange for gold, ivory, copper, butter, honey, wax—and there is too much reason to believe—slaves also. The salt made in the coast-lying regions is in great demand in the interior, throughout which the little blocks circulate as a kind of currency. Between the Blue Nile and the Atbara is the district of Galabat, which

is now annexed to Egypt. Its capital, Metemmeh, forms the centre for the trade of Western Abyssinia, which finds its outlet on the north-west towards Sennaar.

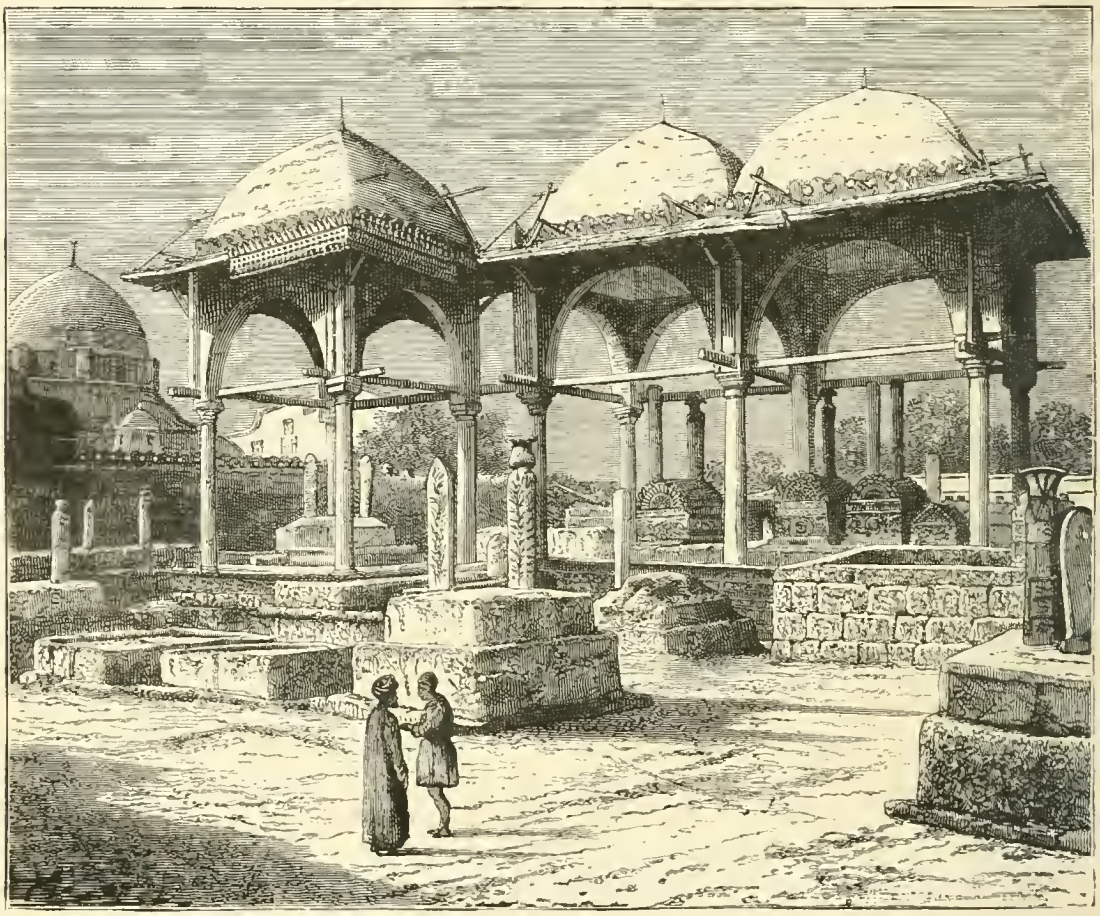
The future of Abyssinia is not promising. Continually subject to the inroads of the Gallas and other wild tribes on its borders, the country can never enjoy that peace which is essential to the development of trade and civilisation, while the ambition of the Egyptian rulers have rarely left it at rest for any length of time. Their possession of the coast line deprives the people of any desert foreign trade, and the stimulus which that would give to production. In some respects, considering the value of the Red Sea to us as a highway to India, it was a mistake to have abandoned it entirely after we had conquered its ruler. We, however, did the next best thing to keeping it. By the gift of some arms to the Prince of Tigre, we enabled him to crush his rivals for the vacant throne of the upstart Theodore, and eventually to get himself crowned king of the country. His lot is not a pleasant one. Rebels require every now and again to be chastised, and the encroachments of the Egyptians bring him continually to the point of war. The "Negus Negyest," or King of kings, as he grandiloquently styles himself, is described as a person of austere life and manner, and considerable military and political talents. In 1876 he annihilated an Egyptian force landed in his territory, and has since threatened even to turn the tables on the successor of Pharaoh. In his court, which is at present at Axum, the king maintains an official known as the Bahor Negus, or king of the sea, whose office has for centuries naturally been a sinecure. This it is understood King Johannes wishes it to be no longer. He demands of the Khedive that the imports of Abyssinia should pass in bond across the Egyptian territory, and that he should be afforded facilities for shipping the products of his kingdom directly from it. To give up Mussowah at present is not to be thought of. But at Annesley Bay, with its port of Mulkatto—at which the British forces disembarked in 1868—at Tajurra, or, if this is too far away from the Abyssinian mountain barrier, at Hanfila Bay, the Abyssinians ought to be able, by the intercession of the English and other Powers interested in the country, to obtain an outlet to the sea, at which the Lord High Admiral might resume his long dormant function in the humbler guise of harbour-master and collector of customs. Abyssinia is certainly not a rich country, but it is not without possibilities and a future, either for its people or for the manufacturers of Europe, now so sorely at their wits' end for fresh markets. But to get a fresh start in the world it requires the helping hand of some civilised nations, instead of receiving, as has been its fate of late, nothing but violence at their hands.*

Egypt.

Modern Egypt, though infinitely less powerful than the kingdom of the Pharaohs, is far more extensive. Indeed, though its exact boundaries towards the interior of Africa—a region which at present the coast-lying Powers are apt to consider as no man's land, so far as adding to their territories from it is concerned—are unknown, it may be roughly described as at least ten times the size of Great Britain. Ancient Egypt was simply the country of the delta formed by the mud brought down from

* For information regarding the condition of Abyssinia see the *Standard* (London), December 12th, 1879.

time immemorial by the Nile, and to this day is still the most important part of the country, and that alone studded with the pyramids, obelisks, sphinxes, and other gigantic memorials of the colossal, if not refined, civilisation of early Egypt. Its ruler, though nominally a vassal of the Sultan of Turkey, has since the time of Mehemet Ali been rapidly marching in the direction of independence. In 1866 he received the Arabic title of Khedive, or King, instead of "Vali," or Viceroy, by which



THE TOMBS OF THE MAMELUKES, THE OLD RULERS OF EGYPT, MASSACRED BY MOHAMMED ALI IN 1811.

name he is still familiarly known, with power of concluding treaties, mustering armies, and unhappily also—as it subsequently proved for the credit of Egypt and the extravagant Ismaïl who in 1878 was deposed by the Sultan and the other European Powers — the privilege of contracting loans. The Khedive is obliged to pay an annual tribute of £720,000 to the Porte, but otherwise he is really an independent sovereign, though of late years his power has become more and more abridged, owing to the debt he has loaded the country with, and at present the finances of the State are under the control of European officials. Egypt proper is the narrow green strip on the banks of the Lower Nile and the fertile delta

composed of the mud which for unnumbered ages it has been bringing down, which is sharply bounded by the arid plateaux and mountains of the Libyan and Arabian Deserts. This is really the only civilised portion of the country, and that which yields the greatest amount of the products of the land, and contains its chief towns—Cairo, the greatest city in Africa, and now rapidly becoming exceedingly European, Tanta, Rosetta, Alexandria, the great commercial emporium and port of Egypt, which is connected with the capital by rail, and the various modern or fragments of ancient towns which dot the banks of the Nile. The Nile is, indeed, the great river

VIEW OF ALEXANDRIA (FROM THE SEA).

of the country, without which it could not exist, for its waters form, even in a day of railways, the main highway into the interior, and by their annual overflow bring fertility to all but rainless land. Cairo is the starting point for those excursions up the river, either in steamers or in private "dabeeyahs," which now form so common a winter amusement of even the moderately wealthy. But no visitor to Cairo ever leaves it without an excursion, either by water or over an excellent road, to the Pyramids, which supply one of the greatest objects of attraction in the whole country, and the purpose of which is still as mysterious and debatable as ever it was, notwithstanding the discussion of which they have been the subject during the last century or more. The drive is one of about eight miles, past the palace of Abbas Pasha, now a barrack and

military school, over the plain on which Sultan Selim fought the battle which won Egypt for the Turk, and by the jessamine and orange gardens of Mataraëëk, in which stands the sycamore which tradition assigns as the tree under which Joseph and Mary took shelter after their flight into Egypt. Then, a mile further on, after driving through a shady acanthus grove, there appears in sight the low granite obelisk which, 4,000 years ago, was hewn out of the quarries of Assouan, 500 miles away, to be the pride of Heliopolis, the City of the Sun. In this once busy city Joseph found his bride in the person of the daughter of the High Priest; here Moses learned "all the wisdom of the Egyptians"; here Jeremiah penned his Lamentations; and here, at a still later date, Plato thought out those brilliant speculations which have proved more lasting than the city in which the philosopher lived. For this tall obelisk, sixty-two feet high, and some mounds of crumbling bricks, are about the only traces of Heliopolis, maize, clover, and cotton covering the ground once occupied by its busy streets and sacred temple yards. The Pyramids of Ghizeh stand on a plain, which after the inundation is bright with vegetation, and dotted all over with "villages embosomed in thickets of date-palms, tamarisks, acacias, and sycamore figs, than which—as looked at a mile or two off—nothing could well be more picturesque." The Pyramids have been so often described that it is needless repeating the oft-reiterated words used to express the wonder and astonishment of every visitor to these oldest and grandest of human monuments, hoary with the age of nearly sixty centuries. The crowds of Arabs who inhabit the rookeries near by clamour in broken English for money and the honour of escorting the *howadji* up the vast staircase which leads to the summit; unkempt and unclothed children shriek for backsheesh as the carriage rattles across the fine bridge which spans the Nile at Kasr-en-Nil, almost to the base of these ancient monuments; and in a couple of hours or less the visitor returns to a city of operas, theatres, concerts, hotels, and cafés. Thus the contrast between the past and the present is even greater than it otherwise would be. Yet the Pyramids of Ghizeh—as the monuments of Cheops, Chephren, Mycerinus, and half-a-dozen smaller ones are called—form only one group of many similar structures which extend from Abouroash to Illahoun, some of which can be seen from the top of the Great Pyramid away over the palms of Memphis, "stretching," to use the words of Mr. McCoan, "along the western bank of the river, weird vestiges of a past that was already remote before history began." In a hollow a few hundred yards to the south-east of the Great Pyramid crouches, as it has crouched for thousands of years, continually getting buried deeper and deeper in the drifting sand, the great stone figure known as the Sphinx, which, like the antique temple recently disinterred in its vicinity, was old before the idea of building his stupendous gnomon entered the brain of Cheops. Mr. Bayard Taylor* considers that it was intended to be seen from below, for its expression becomes almost grotesque when the spectator stands so near its level as the drifting sand around it has brought him within recent years. Still the Sphinx is—as a hundred writers, from Pliny to Professor Ebers,† have unanimously vouched—one of the most solemn and majestic of objects. "Upon

* "Egypt and Iceland" (1875), p. 48.

† "Egypt: Descriptive, Historical, and Picturesque." Edited by Dr. Birch (1880).

ancient dynasties of Ethiopian and Egyptian kings," writes the author of "Eothen," more familiar in late years as the historian of the Crimean war, "upon Greek and Roman, upon Arab and Ottoman conquerors, upon Napoleon dreaming of an Eastern Empire, upon battle and pestilence, upon the ceaseless misery of the Egyptian race, upon keen-eyed travellers—Herodotus yesterday, Warburton to-day—upon all and more the unworldly Sphinx has watched and watched like a Providence, with the same earnest eyes and the same sad, tranquil mien. And we, we shall die, and Islam wither away; and the Englishman, straining far over to hold his loved India, will plant a firm foot on the bank of the Nile, and sit on the seats of the Faithful; and still that shapeless rock will be watching and watching the works of the new busy race with those same sad, earnest eyes, and the same tranquil mien everlasting. You dare not mock at the Sphinx."

Above Cairo, the first town of any consequence is Beni Suef, from which a railway branches off to Medinet el Fâres (p. 88), lying in the fertile basin on the borders of the Moeris Lake, which was an artificial construction made 3,000 years B.C., though there still exists a natural lake. The region, though far away from the Nile and its beneficial inundations, is as fertile as the banks of that river, owing to the presence of the great canal of Bahr-Youssuf—Joseph being credited with digging this, as he is credited with the construction of nearly every other work of art in Egypt. The truth is, that the canal is a thousand years older than Joseph, though, as Mariette Bey has shown that the shepherd king, under whose dynasty Jacob's son probably dwelt, ruled the Fayoum, the popular tradition may possibly refer to the great Egyptian benefactor having superintended the repair of the canal which goes by his name. At Assiout, in Upper Egypt, the railway for the present ends; but from Kenneh, still higher up the river, the adventurous traveller can cross the Arabian Desert to the little port of Kosseir on the Red Sea. Voyagers do not usually go further than Assouan, where the first cataract, or rather rapids, of the Nile formed between granite hills appears. At Wadi Halfa, at the second cataract, the navigation of the river may be said to end, though the Egyptians claim to govern the country as far as Gondokoro, and are endeavouring even to put the whole valley of the Nile on to the Central African lakes under the sway of the Khedive.

Some portion of this region we shall immediately notice, but meantime a few words more about the delta on its northern border. It is separated from the Mediterranean by a chain of brackish lagoons, which are themselves fenced in from the sea by narrow belts of rock and sandbank, on which a few wild and stunted date-palms form the only vegetation. The most western of these lakes—Mareotis—though now little more than a salt marsh, except during the inundations, when its contents are swelled by infiltration, was 200 years ago navigable, and contributed considerably to the importance of Alexandria, behind which it lies. It has been proposed to drain it, and should not the cost altogether eat up the profits, undoubtedly a vast tract of valuable land would thereby be reclaimed. Lake Etko, when full, spreads up nearly to the town of Rosetta; Bourlos is also close to the sea, but very shallow; but Menzaleh, the most eastern and largest of the series, is deeper than the others, and supports a considerable fishing population in the villages and islands along its southern shore.* But of all the modern improvements

* McCoan: "Egypt as It Is" (1876), p. 7.

in Lower Egypt—Alexandria, that altogether European-looking city, and Cairo, which Ismaïl tried to make an Oriental Paris not excepted—the Suez Canal, connecting the Red Sea with the Mediterranean, is the greatest. Until the year 1869 the railway across the northern corner of the Arabian Desert to Suez, at the head of the Red Sea, was the only mode of crossing from the seas of Europe to those of Asia on the short route to the East. But in the year mentioned M. de Lesseps' grand conception became a reality, and, in spite of prophecies to the contrary, has up to the present date continued to flourish. Port Saïd stands at the Mediterranean entrance to this "new sea in an old land." Midway is Ismaïlia, which has sprung up within the last few years, owing to the Canal Company having selected the spot for its head-quarters; the next section of the canal is through the lakes once known as the "bitter," and then, after again narrowing to its normal dimensions, it opens into the Red Sea at Suez, eighty-six miles from the Mediterranean. Owing to the drifting sand, it requires continual dredging; but so successful is it that on an average 1,600 vessels pass yearly through it, and there is every likelihood that as time goes on the number will be greatly increased, and the canal widened in due proportion. Alexandria is usually considered outside the delta; but so far from being "killed by the canal," as it was loudly prophesied would be the case, it has not even begun to retrograde, but, on the contrary, has greatly increased until, at the present time, its population cannot be less than 170,000. Rosetta and Damietta, owing to the bars at the months of the branches of the Nile on which they are situated, advance less rapidly, but both are making progress; and even the more sedate inland towns of Tanta, Zagazig, Damanhour, and Mansourah are profiting by the railways which were among the best of the ways in which Ismaïl spent the money so liberally "lent" him by the unhappy individuals now in the position of the "European bondholders."

In Nubia, Dongola and Berber are in direct communication with the Government of Lower Egypt, and will speedily be connected with it by a railway building from the second cataract to Dongola, where the river is again navigable to El Dabbeh, from whence the caravan routes to Darfur and other regions. The general aspect of Nubia is that of a grassy steppe, sandy on the limits of the desert, and merging into the richer tropical appearance of the country nearer the equator. The Egyptian Soudan is a country still in course of extension. Khartoum is its capital, and with the province of the same name is associated Senar and Fazok, in the basin of the Blue Nile. Senar town is now a decayed place, though once populous and prosperous. The neighbouring country still yields such a quantity of the grain called "durra" (*Sorghum vulgare*) that it is often styled the granary of the Soudan. But Khartoum, which is more fully noticed elsewhere,* is not only the seat of government, but the converging point of many river and caravan trade routes. In early times it was simply a nest of slave traders, whose traffic was almost put an end to during the period Sir Samuel Baker and Colonel Gordon had control of this region. But by all accounts the trade is again showing its head, the native officials being all more or less interested in it, and none

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., pp. 187—190; Schweinfurth: "The Heart of Africa," Vol. I., p. 3, Vol. II., p. 279.

of them, at best, being particularly shocked at the inhumanity of a business which makes money plentiful in the province they govern. In Khartoum live a motley population of Egyptians, Turks, Greeks, Jews, Nubians, Abyssinians, and Negroes, and the vile soldiers (kept for the purpose of enforcing the payment of the tribute), who are chiefly Shilooks, a barbarian horde from the Upper Nile.

The *Soudan* is a well-watered region, getting more and more fertile as we proceed south, while the province of Kordofan is described as consisting generally of wide

VIEW OF BOULAK, ON THE NILE.

undulating plains, covered with high brown grass, with here and there groups of mimosa and solitary baobabs. But water is so scarce during much of the year that it has to be stored, and cattle can therefore only be kept in the vicinity of these reservoirs or of wells. Darfur has only been Egyptian since 1875; but though the province lies around the Marrah mountains, and is therefore watered by the streams flowing from them, the country is unfruitful and dry, except during the period of the summer rains, when it blooms with the richest vegetation. Still further south the Egyptian hold on the Nile Valley becomes less and less substantial, though they have stations almost on to the Albert and Victoria Lakes. Gondokoro was

formerly their chief port in this part of the Soudan, and a foul den of scoundrels, by all accounts, it was. It was the chosen haunt of robbers, slave-thieves, and slave-dealers. These brigands scoured the vicinity of the lakes and the region east and west, as far as Lake Tanganyika, for the purpose of stealing or buying men, women, and children, whom they sold. Several years ago Sir Samuel Baker described it as "a perfect hell," utterly ignored by the Egyptian authorities, and a haunt of as unredeemable a set of cut-throats as it was possible to collect in one spot. Still more recent accounts, both by Sir Samuel Baker and the European officers attached to Gordon's expedition, confirm this account, though the Egyptian authorities, owing to the unhealthiness of the port, have transferred their garrison to Lado, on the other side of the river. The country outside the military stations of the nominal rulers is dotted with the "seribas," or collecting *depôts*, of the ivory and slave traders. These are for the most part Arabs, who either barter for themselves or are the "valis," or agents of firms in Khartoum, who supply the funds in the method already described.*

The Egyptians are rapidly extending their control over the country to the east, and had not Ismaïl suffered a reverse of fortune, he was evidently aiming at so surrounding Abyssinia as to isolate it from the world. Massowah, as we have seen, was occupied in 1866; in 1871 a government was formed for the Eastern Soudan and the Red Sea region; in 1872 the frontier countries at the northern end of the Abyssinian table-land were taken possession of; in 1873 the town of Berberah, on the south coast of the Gulf of Aden, where is yearly held a fair attended by 20,000 Somalis and other people, was occupied by the Khedive's troops; in 1875 Zeila, at the entrance to the Bay of Tajurrah, was seized, and not to enumerate many similar encroachments, in the same year, Harar, up to that date an independent little kingdom, was garrisoned by the Egyptian troops.

The climate of Egypt varies in different portions. In the Delta the heat and drought are almost as great as in that inland Sahara of which we have yet to speak. During the summer northerly winds blow up the Nile Valley, and thus temper the scorching heat of that season. But of rain there is little throughout the year. At Cairo there is an average of only thirteen rainy days in twelve months, and further south, that is, nearer towards the centre of Africa, there are scarcely any showers at all, heavy dews—as in Peru, which is about equally rainless—making up for the deficiency of other moisture. Still further south, past the place where the Nile receives its last tributary (the Atbara), the tropical rains begin, and hence the landscape no longer presents an appearance of burnt-up grass or bare sand, but perennial vegetation of the richest description. In Central Africa there is no regular dry and wet season, for, taking the region round the Albert Nyanza as a specimen, rain falls every month in the year except January and February. So rare, however, are showers in Egypt proper that at Thebes there is not a storm of rain oftener than once in four years, though at Cairo there is usually one every winter, but the frequency of rain has increased since plantations have been grown between the city and the river. The climate is thus remarkably equable for those who can bear heat and take care to avoid the salt marshes along

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., p. 187.

the northern coast. Upper Egypt is also healthier than Lower Egypt, and the least wholesome period of the year Mr. Poole considers to be the autumn, when the inundated soil is drying. Europeans who would preserve their health in Egypt must needs greatly modify their mode of life. They should use alcoholic drinks very sparingly, eat little meat during the hot season, and not expose young children to the climate. Indeed, it is usually considered a great risk to attempt to rear them in Egypt, though if they arrive at the age of ten without injury they are considered to have passed the dangerous climacteric.

"As a resort for invalids," writes the learned authority whom I have just quoted, "Egypt cannot be recommended without caution. Persons suffering from asthma and bronchitis are likely to gain benefit from a Nile voyage, unless the season is unusually cold. The climate of the desert does not in all cases suit them, the small particles of sand which are inhaled increasing the irritation. The desert air is undoubtedly good for consumption, and a wise plan is to encamp near Cairo, or still better, to find some kind of house within the limits of the desert; and there are ancient sepulchral grottoes at Thebes and other sites, which afford excellent quarters for any one who will take the pains to build a court and a few rooms in front of them. A Nile voyage cannot be so safely recommended. The climate on the river itself is more changeable than elsewhere, and often in winter far colder than is good for delicacy of the lungs. No one should visit Egypt in the winter without heavy as well as light clothing." Lane gives the general height of the thermometer in the depth of winter in Lower Egypt, in the afternoon and in the shade, at from 50° to 60°; in the hottest season it is from 90° to 100°, and about 10° higher in the southern parts of the kingdom.* The winds which blow most frequently are those from the north-west, north, or north-east, but particularly from the first direction,† these northerly breezes being the famous "Etesian winds" of Herodotus, which in his day, as in ours, enabled boats to ascend the Nile against its strong current. The southerly winds are often violent and always hot, and if accompanied with sand causes especial suffering to Europeans. The Simoon, or Samoon, is a kind of hot sand-wind hurricane, not so frequent in the cultivated tracts as in the desert, and in any case only occurring at long intervals; while the Zoba'ah, or pillar of sand, and the mirage, are among the other familiar and doubtfully agreeable features of the Egyptian climate.‡

Ophthalmia, ending in blindness, and dysentery are the two most prevalent diseases of the country, the one being due to the climate, the other to the poverty of the great mass of the inhabitants preventing them obtaining sufficient food. The plague has at intervals been one of the greatest scourges of Egypt, but it is nearly forty years since there was an outbreak of it, mainly owing to the better sanitary precautions which have been adopted by the Government. The cholera is also now much less frequent than it was formerly; consumption is extremely rare among the native population; madness, generally in the form of idiotcy, is common, but as an idiot is not confined, and is looked upon as a

* Lane: "Modern Egyptians," Introduction (1835).

† Clot-Bey: "Aperçu Général sur l'Egypte," Vol. I., p. 30.

‡ Mrs. Poole: "Englishwomen in Egypt," Vol. I., p. 96; Smith: "The Nile and its Banks," Vol. II., p. 174.

THE RUINS OF THE PALACE OF RAMESES III., AT MEDINET, UPPER EGYPT.

kind of saint, numbers of knaves feign madness in order to become the objects of popular veneration. Nervous affections are also rare; rheumatism is more frequent, but gout is unknown. Sunstroke often occurs, but owing to the sobriety of the people rarely results

in fatal effects; and it may be added, though dogs are kept in every village, hydrophobia is all but or altogether unknown.*

Egypt is essentially—and above everything—an agricultural country. From the time when Joseph's brethren visited it to "buy corn" the Nile valley has been accounted the granary of the East. Mehemet Ali tried to change the natural bent of the country by introducing manufactures and mining industries, but his efforts only resulted in a waste of money, machinery, and labour, so that his successors have begun to fully recognise the fact that in the soil of Egypt is contained its true wealth. Nearly five millions of acres are at present under cultivation, and of these 719,000 are said to be devoted to cotton, albeit this crop, which during the American war was so profitably cultivated, has rapidly declined in popu-

SCENE ON A TRIBUTARY OF THE NILE (BULRUSHES, IBIS, ETC.).

larity. Rice, sugar, beans, barley, maize, and the clover known as "bersim," occupy the rest of the ground, and so well suited is the climate for agriculture that two or three crops can be yearly taken off the land. Every year the Nile, bearing down from Abyssinia and the far-off regions in which it takes its rise, floods laden with fine soil, overflows its banks, leaving on the surface stores of rich mud, which afford a bed for the grain of such unparalleled richness that it annually renews the fertility of the soil exhausted by the crops which had been already taken off it. Canals are now used to regulate the overflow, and the "Holeeg," or yearly cutting to let in the waters of the river, is one of the most imposing of State ceremonials. It is, however, affirmed by some old Egyptians that this new-fangled method interferes with the fertility of the soil, by allowing much of the deposit to settle down in the bed of the river; and it is certain that of late years the use

* In Dr. Clot-Bey's "Aperçu Général," and in the great works of the French Commission—"Description de l'Egypte," Vol. XIII., p. 29—will be found a very full account of the diseases of the country.

of manures have been found necessary to enrich land which for ages has required no other stimulus or food than that brought down by the ancient river. Sugar is one of the chief products of Egypt, and long one of the monopolies of the Khedive, but flax, which in early times was one of the principal crops of the country, has now been almost entirely superseded by cotton. Indigo is also a product, reared to some extent in the Delta; and in the Fayoum, besides grain and fruits, there are some large plantations of roses cultivated for the valuable "attar," which is rarely seen in its purity. In the deserts the date-palm grows in clusters; and in the southern tropical regions, in the land of crocodiles and hippopotami, rhinoceroses, giraffes, and elephants, durra, or millet, is the cultivated grain; and still higher up, in the park-like grassy steppes away from the Nile —here choked up with reeds and matted islands of sod, through which Sir Samuel Baker so wearily cut a way for his flotilla—are grazed herds of cattle. In the grassy parts of Lower Egypt may also be seen flocks of sheep, asses, and goats dotting the pastures.*

Mr. McCoan—who has not only written the best modern account of Asiatic Turkey, but also the most authoritive *précis* of our knowledge regarding modern Egypt —considers the country singularly deficient in mineral wealth, and it certainly has no industries which can be properly classified under that head. The emeralds of the country between the Nile at Edfou and the Red Sea, the lead of the same region, the gold of the Bishari country, and the turquoises of the Peninsula of Sinai (which is claimed by Egypt) have not been worked for many years, though the recent researches of Captain Burton have shown that the gold of the eastern coast of the Gulf of Akabah—the ancient land of Midian—is not yet exhausted. He has re-discovered extensive quarries of quartz and chlorite abounding in rich veins of both gold and silver, with remains of Roman mining works, and traces of a busy population who for some unexplained reason had deserted the country while the supplies of ore were still unexhausted. Gold dust was also washed out of the sands of the streams that run through the gorges of the granite and porphyry hills, which separate the coast from the interior. Tin and antimony were also found; so that, even allowing for the possibility of the gallant and learned explorer having been carried away by his enthusiasm, it is undoubted that in the region in question there is still a prospect of a fresh industry being added to the few which Egypt was hitherto thought capable of supporting. Granite, limestone, porphyry, and alabaster are still mined to some extent; nitre is obtained in Lower Egypt and along the western coast of the Red Sea; sea salt is manufactured at various places near the shore; petroleum has been "struck" a hundred miles south of Suez; and the fisheries have already become so important as to employ nearly 10,000 hands, and to support a considerable export trade to Syria, Turkey, and Greece.

The total revenue of the country is not very clearly made out, but it is generally stated at something under £9,000,000, while the debt is very little short of £85,000,000, a load almost unbearable for a country which, roughly speaking, comprises some million and a half square miles, and a population of 18,000,000, one-third of whom are in

* De Leon: "The Khedive's Egypt," p. 200 *et. seq.*

Egypt proper.* Cairo is said to have a population of nearly 400,000, but, with the exception of Alexandria, none of the other towns have over 33,000. At the date of the last census there were nearly 80,000 foreigners, the majority Greeks, Frenchmen, and Italians. The Austrians and the English numbered each about 6,000, but with the exception of the Germans, who were 1,100 in number, the other nationalities had comparatively few representatives. The commerce of Egypt is never likely to decrease; and since an European commission has taken the supervision of its finances it promises to take a fresh start, while the already extensive transit trade of the country is calculated to assume year by year greater and greater proportions.† There is still a future for Egypt, but the future is great or small in exact proportion to the extent to which the present Turko-Egyptian Government is permitted to oppress the wretched Fellaheen and other inhabitants of the country. During the reign of Ismaïl, Europe was dazzled by his magnificence and "enlightenment." How hollow was all this the events of the last few years have proved. He obtained money to make the display by reckless borrowing, and he paid the interest as long as he could by practising the most brutal extortion on his subjects. The bulk, however, of the loans was expended on himself, and by methods which can be characterised by no name milder than robbery he obtained possession of the best lands and other property. Hotels, palaces, mills, steamers, railways—all were his. In brief, Egypt was the Khedive's, and to his subjects it was, as it had been to the Children of Israel—who, however, taking advantage of its ruler's necessities, have turned the tables—"a house of bondage." His grip of the country has now been loosened, he himself is in exile, and his country is "administered" under the nominal rule of his son, Mehemed Tewfik. But it must be, and is destined to be, still more administered before it can ever become what from its position and resources it is capable of becoming. Meantime it is, as it were, in an interregnum, for no one can seriously believe that Egypt is long destined to remain under its present rulers, or doubt who eventually must be its masters.

CHAPTER VI.

Africa: The Barbary States; Tripoli; Tunis; Algeria; and Morocco.

The ethnologically natural, geographically not dissimilar, though politically incongruous States which are familiarly known under this general name were in ancient times called Mauritiana, Numidia, Africa Propria, and Cyrenaica. In more modern

* Late returns give the population of Lower Egypt at five and a half millions. In the times of the Pharaohs there is believed to have been at least a million and a half more.

† In addition to the works referred to in this necessarily brief sketch, the reader, amid a library of other volumes, might profitably consult the treatises of Gallion-Danglar, Loftie, Mühlbach, Zincke, Amicis, Avé-Lallemant, Leith-Adams, Brugsch-Bey, Miss Edwards, Lady Duff-Gordon, Lesseps, Covino, Borde, Appleton, Miss Wheatley, Villiers-Stuart, the ordinary tourists' guide-books, and the numerous works to which the completion of the Suez Canal has given birth.

times they have been broken up into the countries known respectively as Barca, Tripoli, Tunis, Fezzan, Algeria, Morocco, and Luz; though nowadays, Tripoli and Tunis under Turkey, Algeria under France, and Morocco as an independent kingdom, are all that remain of the ancient States which have at different times maintained an independent existence. The minor have merged into the greater, and exist only by name, as provinces of one or other of the countries named. "Barbary" stretches from Egypt to the Atlantic in one direction, and in another from the Mediterranean southward to the Desert of Sahara, and into the interior of Africa, which the coast-lying nations have hitherto looked on as a sort of continental common which any one is at liberty to fence off portions of, and incorporate into his private estate, as fast as they found it convenient and safe to proceed. The Atlas Mountains divide the north-western portion into two regions: the northern, or *Maghreb*, comprising Morocco, Algeria, and Tunis, or the civilised region; and the southern, or *Belud-el-Jerid*, "the country of dates." Maghreb, indeed, looks like a mountainous island rising up between the desert and the sea, and though geographically pertaining to Africa, in climate, plants, animals, and geological conformation, it belongs to the Mediterranean basin. Its streams, which are of small size, flow either into the Mediterranean or into the salt lakes on the border of the desert, according as they arise on the northern or on the southern side of the Atlas range. Hence, much of the country is fertile and capable of cultivation. Sandy deserts are rare, and there is no reason why it should not be, as it was in the time of the Carthaginians, Romans, and Greeks, one of the richest portions of Africa, nothing save the ferocity and foolishness of men having made it what it is at present. From the earliest times, and up to the eleventh century, the Berbers, an African people, inhabited this country. At that period began the great

AN ARAB SOLDIER OF TUNIS.

AN ARAB MERCHANT AT TLEMCEN, ALGERIA.

Arabic immigration, and since then the Turks, Jews, and a sprinkling of other nationalities, have established a footing in the country, until the population of the Barbary States comprises about 10,000,000 of people—Berbers (or Kabyles), Moors, or Arabs, Bedoweens of the same race, Turks, Kuluglis, a mixed Turkish or Kabyle race, and Negroes. The Moors comprise the majority of the townsmen; the Bedoweens live, owning no man their master, in the wilder part of the interior; and the Berbers, though leading a more sedentary life, are allowed to do pretty much what they choose, so long as their native chiefs see to their proper tribute being paid over to the central authorities. The Turks arrived in the sixteenth century, and their tongue is still the one used in the governments of Tunis and Tripoli, though in Morocco all classes speak Arabic, the Kabyles using a peculiar tongue of their own. The Negroes are mostly domestic slaves brought from the Soudan; and as for the Jews, they are mainly of Portuguese origin, but are scattered all over the country, wherever their pre-eminent abilities as financiers and traders are likely to be of advantage to—themselves.

Throughout all this region the Atlas Mountains give character to the country. Its highest mountain is attained in Jebel-Miltsin, 11,400 feet in height, but gradually the range descends by terraces to the flat lands which prevail along the shores of the Atlantic, except in the north, where, as the late Mr. Keith Johnston pointed out, a branch range skirts the Mediterranean coast, running out to close the narrow Strait of Gibraltar, to form the steep Riff, the vicinity of which was until a generation or two ago notorious for pirates.

In Algeria and Tunis the mountains take the form of a plateau shut in between mountain ranges, the most fertile portion of which is the *Tell* country. But beyond the mountain range the country is bare, monotonous table-land, dotted over with brackish lakes or marshes, and where the only water available for the herds is what is left in the stagnant pools remaining in the hollows of the rocks after the winter's rains. The Aures Mountains of Eastern Algeria, which culminate in Mount Sheliah to the height of 7,555 feet, are the most prominent parts of the southern bordering range, which extends from Tunis to Morocco, and from the summit of which a magnificent panorama, extending southwards to the lowlands of the Sahara, can be obtained.

The Sahara.

The Sahara, though often classed as a sort of "No-Man's Land," is, in reality, well divided up among different tribes, and is also claimed in part by the three States lying on its northern borders. Rightly speaking, it comprises all the dry, almost rainless, and more or less desert region between the Nile Valley and the Atlantic in Northern Africa; and the name, which is a corruption of the Arabic word for desert, viz., "Zahrah," fairly describes its general character. Southward for some 1,200 miles it keeps these features, until it gradually merges into better watered pasture-lands, and finally into the tropical verdure of the Soudan. The desert possesses no permanent streams, but as water can usually be obtained by digging into the beds of the "Wadys," or channels, which for a brief period form streams, most probably there are underground reservoirs. But the main feature of the Sahara outside the desert are the dry lake beds, or "Sebkhas," covered with baked mud, or covered with sheets of glistening salt. The long extending stretch

of sand dunes on the northern borders of the desert has given the prevailing idea that it is altogether sand. But in reality much of it is stony plateau, while in some spots in the Libyan Desert, and southward of the plateau of Tunis, are "hofras," or depressions and marshes, below the sea level. For instance, the Shott Kebir is forty-five feet below the level of the Mediterranean, and as it is only separated from it by a barrier ten miles wide, it has been proposed to cut through the wall, and so form a sort of inland sea in the Sahara. The result of the step would be a lake as large as Ontario, and in addition to all the advantages which evaporation would give in the shape of moisture to the arid country in its vicinity, it would supply a shallow water-way through a region which is at present almost closed to any civilised commerce. The French have, however, begun surveys for a railway to stretch through this region, from Algeria on to Timbuctoo on the Niger. Accordingly, the alternative scheme may for the present be laid aside. Here and there parts of the Sahara, within the bounds of the Barbary States, lying at considerable elevations over the sea, partake not so much of the character of desert as of oasis—green, tolerably well-watered patches separated from some other terrestrial island of the same description by mile after mile of sterile sand. The inhabited oases are usually around wells, under palm-trees, the foliage of which strain the scorching rains of the sun: hence, probably, the origin of the name, from the Coptic "ouahé," inhabited place. These oases are found wherever there is sufficient water to stimulate vegetation into life, this proving that were the Sahara to receive a supply of moisture by any artificial change of the climate, it would soon become a fine rolling down, covered with sweet grass, on which millions of cattle could graze. Owing to the general aridity of the country, they are at present only found at the spots where the periodical water-courses sink into the desert, or in the hollows, where the moisture "filters down to the lowest central point of the basin," as, for example, in the oases of the Libyan Desert. The oases are, however, only welcomed in the summer, for when the winter rains fall the "Kifar," or plain country, is clothed with grass and herbs, and hither the shepherds who had fled to the oases resort with their flocks and herds. But take it as a whole, the Sahara is throughout "falat," or flat, sterile country, over which the hot winds sweep, and the mirage lures the weary travellers who cross it on camels, in order to convey their goods from Timbuctoo and other barbarous States in or on its borders to the civilised settlements on its western and northern frontier. Such a region would be hardly inhabitable were it not for the cool evenings, which reinvigorate the body exhausted by the heat of the day. Often when the sun is up the thermometer will mark, if laid on the rock and sand, a temperature very little below that of the boiling point of water, while at night, owing to the rapid radiation from the ground in the excessively dry atmosphere, water sometimes freezes. Between October and March there are a few showers, but in the lowlands, in the heart of the desert, rain is often unknown for twenty years on a stretch, and even the tropical rains do not reach further than the more hilly parts during the month of August and September. Hot winds, known in various parts of Northern Africa as the "Khamsin," the "Sirocco," the "Shume," and the "Harmattan," visit it, though the north-east wind is the prevailing dry one.

Over this wide region wander the Moors and Berbers, nomads, who in the south-west have settled into semi-civilised communities; the Tuarij, a finely formed race of horsemen, who escort the caravans of the merchants across the Central Sahara, and the Tibbus, a pastoral people allied to the Negroes, or who have at some period become amalgamated with them. But the character of the country is not favourable to settled life. It is too poor—too spotted—to permit of a large population, or even of a small one not prepared to wander about in search of their food. The date-tree is the chief food supply of this wide region, though in the oases maize, rice, and barley are grown. The camel is the Saharan "ship of the desert," and can subsist cheerfully on the thorny shrubs which are found in the dryest and dreariest of its wastes, but beyond a few gazelles, antelopes, hares, foxes, there are almost no animals which can find a living here. The ostrich, it is true, may be seen scudding across the sands shimmering in the hot sun, and the vulture and the raven hovering over the dying camel, waiting for the moment when they may feast on its carrion. But these birds only add to the dolefulness of the scene.

The geography of the region is vaguely known. The books always mention Tiris, Aderer, Asgar, Ahaggar-Tuarejs, Tidikelt, Air, and Tibest, or the country of the Tibbus, as separate States in the Sahara, though of few of them do we know much, or indeed for our purpose is there very much to learn about their oases, or poor mud-built villages and towns. Most of them are ruled by Sultans, though Tidikelt is said to be a collection of 300 to 400 little oases, smaller even than the smallest of the pre-Napoleonic German principalities, united under a crude republican form of government, albeit a despotism seems the method of rule most congenial to the African people—and, as every nation sooner or later gets the government for which it is best fitted, it is presumably the one most suitable for the turbulent, unthinking Africans.

A country with resources so limited can scarcely be expected to spare many surplus products to its neighbours. Dates constitute the chief food of the Sahara, but few are exported, as the cost of transit eats up the profits. Salt, which is found in many parts of the desert—especially in Taodeni, between Timbuctoo and Morocco, and in Bilma, on the way from Bornu to Tripoli—is the staple of Saharan commerce, and forms the main article carried in the camel caravans which cross the desert to the Soudan, to purchase grain, &c. But ostrich feathers, slaves, gold dust, and ivory are also conveyed by the traders, who cross the Soudan in a northerly direction to the Mediterranean ports, with which to buy calicoes, trinkets, and cutlery. Tafilet, in Southern Morocco, indeed, shares with Timbuctoo and Tidikelt the distinction of being the great centre of Saharan trade. At this town caravans are continually arriving or setting out from, though the greatest of all the Saharan caravan routes is that which collects the commerce of the country round Lake Chad, and leads thence by the salt mines to Bilma, through Mourzouk, in Fezzan, to the town of Tripoli. The slave trade, Mr. Johnston, on whom we have relied for these data, asserts is still in full vigour in the Sahara. It is estimated that every year fully 10,000 slaves pass northward by the Mourzouk route from Bornu, and that so long has this traffic continued that the track taken by the dealers in men may be traced by the bleached skeletons of those who have fallen by the wayside, exhausted by the hardships and barbarities of the toilsome march.

A MOORISH WARRIOR.

To return to the Barbary States—we find them nowadays in that decaying condition which seems the lot of most Mohammedan kingdoms, in or out of Africa. In a country where Carthage and the Phœnician colonies once flourished, where Jugurthas's Numidia was a prosperous kingdom, and Mauritania, the land of Juba, and Cyrenaica were rich beyond what any of the countries of the region are now, there exists little but misery, poverty, and fanaticism, save in the French colony of Algeria, which is, however, by no means so happy as it might be. The traces of the Roman conquests and possession can yet be seen

MOORS.

in the ruined aqueducts, amphitheatres, and other remains. In Northern Africa Christianity made rapid progress, and prospered, in spite of the atrocities of the Vandals who, under Genseric, landed there in A.D. 429, until in 647 the Arabs, finding the country an easy prey, swept off the feeble fragments of the Empire, and proselytised the country with fire and sword. The Arabs continued, though the dynasty which had conquered was so rapidly succeeded by others that the historian grows tedious in describing how one family displaced another, only in its turn to be tumbled down by some one more powerful. This went on until independent States began to arise out of the weakened empire, now no longer able to extend its conquests abroad or to preserve discipline at home. Driven out of Spain, the Moors formed piratical nests in Northern Africa, and so soon embroiled

themselves with the Christian Powers—quarrels which, though no longer due to the old cause, are not yet extinct. They have, indeed, continued up to our own days, and only in the summer of 1880 a conference met in Madrid to arrange the outstanding difficulties between Morocco and the rest of the world which has dealings with it. Tripoli, which comprises the old independent States of Fezzan and Barca—the latter being claimed by Egypt—is a vilayet of Turkey; Tunis is still more independent, being only a regency under the Sultan; Algeria, after a fierce struggle with Abdel-Kadr and other Arab chiefs, has since the year 1830 been a colony of France; while Morocco has long been an independent empire. The present Sultan — Muley-Hassan — is the fourteenth of the dynasty of the Alides, or Fileli, and the thirty-fifth lineal descendant of Ali, uncle and son-in-law of the Prophet, who has held the title of Emir-al-Mumenin, or Absolute Ruler of True Believers.

Tripoli.

If we include the plateau of Barca—a cool fertile land, corresponding to the ancient Cyrenaica, and, as such, famous for its horses and its predatory inhabitants—Tripoli comprises about 340,000 square miles, inhabited by a population numbering something over one million. The country is more mountainous than the rest of the Barbary States, and the want of rivers and rain being partially compensated for by the heavy dews, parts of the country are very fertile. Especially is this the case round the towns of Tripoli and Mesurata, where tropical forests, grains, grapes, cotton, madder are all reared, though along the shore of the Gulf of Sidra the sandy desolation so characteristic of the lowlands of the Barbary States again prevails. Sheep, cattle, and horses are among its most famous exports, while a considerable trade is done with Malta and the Levant in the products of Central Africa, which are brought to Tripoli by the Sahara caravans. The five *liras*, or provinces, are governed by a Pasha appointed by the Ottoman Sultan, and the revenue is raised by a tax of one-tenth of the produce of the soil, in addition to an impost on every olive and date-tree, and on all camels, sheep, goats, and Jews, the latter being considered in an especial degree a legitimate object on which the genius for extortion may expend itself. The Turks got possession of Tripoli in 1552, but up to the year 1835 they exercised over it almost a nominal rule, until the sovereignty had become for many generations hereditary in the family of the ruling Dey. Since that date the Sultan has exercised his authority vigorously in the vilayet, and suppressed rebellions with an ungloved hand.

Tripoli—which is a corruption of Tripolis, "the three cities," and got its name from Sabrata, Oea, and Leptis Magna, the Carthaginian towns along the shores of the Gulfs of Cabes and Sidra—has now few cities, and none of them of any great importance. The capital is at Tripoli, which is the great *entrepôt* for the Soudan products brought across the desert from Bornu, and vies with South Africa in supplying Europe with ostrich feathers. Murzuk is a town in one of the garden-like oases of Fezzan, inhabited mainly by traders, who do business with the merchantmen of the desert; and the same may be said of Ghadames, on the border of the Sahara, and of Benghazi, in Barca, a

port which supplies an outlet for the caravans which cross the country from Wadai, in the Soudan.

Tunis.

We have now come to the furthest confines of the Turkish Empire. In Tripoli the Caliph's power we have seen to be frail; in Tunis it is barely recognised, this country being merely a regency under a Bey, who acknowledges the suzerainty of the Sultan in so far that he can neither declare war, conclude peace, cede territory, nor coin money without the Sultan's authority. His army is also at the Sultan's disposal, as was proved during the late war, when most unwillingly a contingent of men was granted to the Porte. On the other hand, the authority of the Tunisian ruler is absolute within his own dominions; his office is hereditary in the family of Hamuda Pasha, who, early in the century, threw off the yoke of Algeria, to which Tunis had become tributary, subdued the Turkish militia, and established a native army. In early days Tunis bulked more largely in the world's esteem than it has ever done since, for it was the colony of which Carthage was the capital, and the scene of the victories and defeats, the triumphs and misfortunes, of Hannibal and Hamilcar, Scipio and Jugurtha. Up to the year 1575 its history is that of the Barbary States, of which it is one; but at that date it was conquered by Turkey, and incorporated with the Ottoman Empire under a separate constitution, which vested the supreme power in the hands of a divan composed of military officers. Then, after various rebellions, a "Dey" was appointed as the nominal court ruler, but under the title of "Bey" gradually increased his power, which in time he made hereditary, until the present state of affairs was brought about. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and even well into the nineteenth, the Barbary States—and especially Tunis and Algeria—were notoriously piratical. The pirate fleets organised by the Dey were the terror of the Mediterranean, and so helpless were the merchantmen of the Christian Powers that they stooped to the humiliation of paying tribute or black mail for immunity. At last, however, they rebelled, and the "Corsairs of brown Barbary" ceased to molest the traders along its coast.

The kingdom, or regency, comprises about 15,000 square miles, inhabited by over 2,000,000 people, mostly of Arabic descent, though, especially in the interior, there are many Berbers. Its general character, owing to the Great Atlas range terminating in it, is mountainous. The northern coast is rocky and steep, with numerous bays and headlands, but the eastern shore is flat, sandy, and barren, and the southern part is a portion of the Desert Steppe of Belad-el-Jerid. The country is badly watered. There is only one fresh-water lake of any consequence, and none of the various brooks or streams are navigable, all of them losing themselves in the sand, or reaching the sea after a brief course. But the soil is fertile, and, in spite of agriculture being at a very low ebb, all the crops of the Barbary States are cultivated with success. Olive oil is, in an especial degree, a staple of the country, sheep and cattle pasture on the plains, and the horses and dromedaries of Tunis are famous throughout North Africa. Lead, saltpetre, quicksilver, and the sea salt obtained out of the lagoons, &c., are among the other sources of Tunisian wealth, and there are also

a considerable number of various manufactures and other artificial and natural productions, which, exported by sea or sent by caravans to Central Africa, supply a considerable source of wealth to this once famous country, a fourth larger than Scotland, and with natural resources much greater, though still awaiting future development under a Government more enlightened and by a people more energetic. The tribal antipathies so markedly noticed in other parts of Northern Africa are, in Tunis, one of the many causes which have retarded the country. The Berbers dislike the Moors, and live apart from them; the Moors despise the Berbers, and oppress them; the Jews are hated by all alike, and, while living apart from the Mohammedans, find some consolation in the profit they derive from their necessities; finally, the Kulugli are a

VIEW OF SUSA.

mixed race, the offspring of Turks and Moors. Christians, owing to the firmness of the Powers, are treated, so far as actual liberty is concerned, tolerably well, though in the holy city of Kairwan, lying on a barren plain seventy-five miles south of the capital, no Jew or Christian is allowed to dwell, the place being one of the Moslem holy cities, and, like Wazan, in Morocco, is inhabited by a very fanatical population. Tunis town is a picturesque place, without any marked characteristics to distinguish it from any other Berber town, and is built twenty miles from the sea; Goletta, its port, is connected with it by a short railway, and carries on considerable commerce with Genoa, Marseilles, and other Mediterranean ports. Bardo is a smaller place, which may be said to depend on the court of the Bey, whose palaces it surrounds, for its very subsistence; and the only other ports are Biserta, Susa—a view of which we have engraved—Monastir, Mahdia, and Sfax.

Tunis, until the accession of the present sovereign—Sidi Mohammed-el-Sadok—was a pure despotism. He has, however, established courts of law and an approach to a

civilised form of government. He has also, unfortunately, by his extravagance got into over five millions of debt, the interest on which the revenue of £273,000 per annum is utterly impossible to meet, and at the same time to defray the expenses of the Government on the old scale of lavishness. The result is that the Bey has put his finances into the hands of an international commission, which constitutes, as it were, a State within a State. Dependent for his very means of existence on this commission, the old Bey has for long tried the expedient of shuffling along among the

MOORISH COFFEE-HOUSE AT SIDI-BOW-SADI, NEAR TUNIS.

foreign consuls, who hector and browbeat him, and the familiar Oriental expedient of pitting the one against another. When hard pressed by one representative he gets clear of him by fair words, which he as readily retracts when badgered by another. The result is that Tunis is at this moment the field for the exercise of international rivalries of a character which threaten to be serious. For many reasons, Italy has always looked with special regard on Tunis, and confidently calculates on the regency falling to her share when the Turkish Empire breaks into pieces. In the ninth century before Christ the Phœnicians founded their famous city of Carthage, near the mouth of the River Bagadras, thirteen miles from the present town of Tunis, and up to its destruction in 146 B.C., it was the greatest rival Rome possessed. But in that year

the edict of the Senate, "delenda est Carthago," went forth, and was ruthlessly obeyed. For seventeen days the captured city burned, and then the plough was passed over and the ground cursed for ever. "Where the industrious Phœnicians," writes Momsen, "bustled and trafficked for five hundred years, Roman slaves henceforth pastured the herds of their distant masters." So completely desolate was the site that when, twenty-four years later, the colonists on Caius Gracchus arrived to found the city of Junonia they were scared at night by the troops of hyænas which howled around their camps. Junonia was a failure. But in 29 B.C. the second colony set out by Cæsar Augustus, in fulfilment of a design of his uncle, was so successful that in time it became the rival of Alexandria, and in the fifth century was the capital of the Vandal Kingdom. In 533 it was stormed by Belesarius, and in 706 was so entirely effaced by the troops of the Caliph Abdulmelek that at the present day it is with difficulty that the plan of the city can be traced. For ages it was a quarry for the builder. The cathedral of Pisa is said to be built out of the ruins of Carthage, and it is certain that the Genoese vessels of the middle ages rarely returned without a ballast of Tunisian marble, doubtless obtained from the same source. The broken arches of an aqueduct, once fifty miles long, are the most prominent remains which now attract the eye, though whether these are of Carthaginian or Roman origin is unknown. Much more lies hidden under drifted sand and the silt of the Bagadras; and Mr. Oscar Browning tells us that even the marble blocks of the ancient walls have been in part destroyed by the works of the Tunis Railway.*

But the Italians see with a chagrin approaching rage the ancient conquest of their fathers seemingly passing from their grasp. They are aware, as is the world at large, that the day of Tunis is nearly over. The French, they fancy, are also alive to this, and are preparing, when a favourable opportunity occurs, to incorporate the regency with Algeria, if not to lord it over North Africa, as Rome in the palmy days of the commonwealth did before her. Italy at the same time remembers, in her quest for some penal settlement for her knaves, or some colony which may draw some of the stream of honest men which she is alarmed at seeing pouring over the Atlantic to the Argentine Republic and the other States of South America, that even when she was split into several small States, she had for centuries, both in Tunis and its harbour of Goletta, flourishing Genoese, Tuscan, Neapolitan, and other factories, with coral and tunny fisheries. These are now united in one large colony, mustering over about ten thousand people, carrying on a large part of the trade of the regency, and exercising not a little influence over its government. Tunis is, moreover, of all African lands, the nearest to the Italian coasts; and the Italians still recalls how Cato frightened the Roman Senate, with respect to the inconvenient proximity of Carthage to Rome, by producing a basket of fresh figs which had been gathered on African soil only forty-eight hours before. But year after year the Frenchman runs a closer and closer rivalry with the

* Bottger: "Geschichte der Carthagen"; Bealé: "Fouilles à Carthage"; Davis: "Carthage and Her Remains"; St. Marie: "Bibliographie Carthaginoise," with which Mr. Browning ("Encyclopædia Britannica," Vol. V. p. 163) seems to think there ought to be read the review in the "Literarisches Centralblatt," May 20th, 1876, etc.

Italian; and since the former have undertaken the construction of a hundred miles of railway from Bona to Guelma, the latter have, judging from debates in the Italian Parliament, grown furious over this effort to "stretch the Algerian net" across the French border into Tunis. The line of twenty miles from Goletta to Tunis was originally constructed by an English company, who sold their concessions to a Genoese firm. This aroused the jealousy of the French, who insisted on being allowed to build a rival railway. The Bey has, however, pleading that he could not infringe on the first concession, granted permission to lay down rails from the old port of Biserta to Tunis, thus opening to the French on the northern coast of the regency as good a trading channel as the Italians had on the East at Goletta. The Italians now advise the settlement of Barca, the old Cyrenaica, as a colony; and undoubtedly such a step would do more for both Italy and Africa than a war with France for the possession of a country which belongs to neither Power, and which would certainly not benefit the French Republic.*

Mohammed el-Sadok, a man of sixty-seven, whose heir is his brother, Sidi-Ali, is descended from Ben-Ali-Toorki, a native of the island of Crete. The regency comprises forty-one tribes, which are divided into eighteen great "Ouatans," governed by "Kaïds" nominated by the Bey. The subdivisions of districts are administered by "Meshëiks," who pay each year a tribute to the Bey.

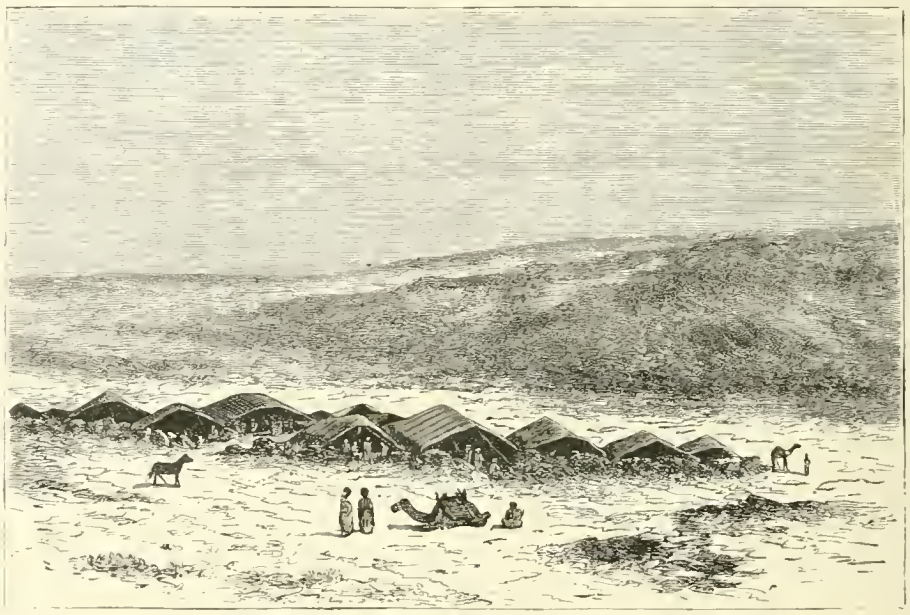
Algeria.

This country, though little inferior to France in size, must be briefly dismissed, since it only ranks as a colony, and though possessing a varied surface, it has but a small extent of good country available for European settlement. As a rule its surface is mountainous, the lofty ranges of the Atlas traversing it nearly parallel to the coast. Near the sea there are occasional extensive plains, like that of Metidja, and among the mountains are frequent fertile valleys and high table-lands, formed by the smaller ranges which interlace and connect the larger ones. The zone bordering the Mediterranean, known as the Tell (p. 94), is the cultivated region. Here, in a series of basins, are grown great crops of wheat, barley, and other grains, and on the mountain slopes separating these forests of cork, oak, cedar, and other trees. The other region is the portion of the Sahara included in the colony, and has already been sufficiently noticed. In reality, however, part of the Algerian Sahara, as described by Canon Tristram,† consists of mountains, and is better watered, more fertile, and more populous than the portion immediately bordering the Great Desert, which consists for the most part of oases, surrounded by the usual sand wastes. The villages in this region are circled by belts of palms, pomegranates, figs, apricots, peaches, and vines; and though at present

* *The Times* (London), August 27th, 1880; De Flaux: "La Regence de Tunis" (1866), etc.

† "The Great Sahara" (1870); Beynet: "Les Colons algeriens" (1866); Duval: "L'Algerie et ses Colonies françaises" (1877); Fillias: "L'Algerie, ancienne et moderne" (1875); Fregier: "Chevesick" (1871); Murray's "Handbook of Algeria" (1874); Seguin: "Walks in Algeria" (1878); Blackburn: "Artists and Arabs" (1870); Villot: "Mœurs, coutumes, et institutions des indigenes d'Algerie" (1872); Bonneford: "Douze Ans en Algerie" (1880), etc., with the current official publications of the French Government and of the British Foreign Office.

owing to the scarcity of railways and good roads, and the entire absence of navigable rivers, the fine forests on the mountain slopes are only partially utilised, great injury is done to these sources of future wealth by the habit which the people have of burning the old grass off their fields in order to give space for the growth of fresh crops, a system which, in a dry climate, has often the effect of setting fire to great stretches of noble timber—pine, cedar, elm, ash, maple, olive, oak, and cork. Algeria is plentifully supplied with lakes and marshes, but the rivers, though numerous, are of little value to the country, since most of the smaller ones are little better than mountain torrents, all but dry in the summer, and in the rainy season tearing along with such wild impetuosity as to render progress about the country at that season extremely



A DOUAR, OR ENCAMPMENT OF BEDOWEENS.

difficult. In the coast regions the climate is that of Italy and Spain, but in the Sahara the summer heat is most oppressive. September is the month during which most rain falls; then the whole country revives, and is covered for a brief period with the freshest of vegetation; the streams which fall into the Mediterranean rush wildly and joyously through their rocky beds, and the colonists hasten to sow their crops. In the upland regions, esparto or halfa grass (*Macrochloa tenacissima*) are cultivated for the paper-makers; the dwarf palm (*Chamærops humilis*), which grows there, is also an article of commerce, owing to the Parisian manufacturers having discovered its capabilities as the source of "vegetable horse-hair" (*crin vegetal*). The vine prospers well on the mountain side, at an elevation of about 3,000 feet above the sea, and among other introduced plants, the Arabs—and their soil—take kindly to the potato. The limits of Algeria are so vague towards the desert that the number of French subjects within its borders can be ascertained only approximately. Exclusive of the

wandering Bedoweens, whose hand is against every man, and against whom is the hand of all who can reach them, the official estimates* put the population of the colony at 2,867,626, including 302,576 settlers of European descent, of whom 194,772 are classed as French. The Spaniards, Swiss, Italians, and Anglo-Maltese were the other four nationalities who next to the French had most representatives in Algeria.

BEDOWEENS AT PRAYER.

Ninety-two per cent. of the land under culture was owned by the natives, but of the commerce—amounting in imports to over eight millions sterling, and in exports to nearly seven millions—nearly all was in the hands of the foreign residents. Of the trade, about two-thirds is with France, though, especially in the article of esparto grass, there is a considerable export to Great Britain, our purchases of that article amounting in 1878 to no less than 39,941 tons, valued at £265,570. The Arabs are the native population most numerous and powerful in the country. They have driven back to the table-land the

* "Statistique generale de l'Algerie" (1878-79); "Report of Her Majesty's Consuls" (1876-1880).

Berbers, who are good agriculturists and of settled habits. Passionately fond of their native land, the latter have ever maintained a stout fight with the former, in spite of that race being of the same faith with themselves. The Arabs who dwell in town are known as Moors; the wandering tribes, whose propensity for loot is irresistible, are universally known as Bedoweens.

Algeria was in early times a part of the kingdom of Numidia, which by-and-by became a Roman province, and for a space enjoyed great prosperity, until the invasion of the Vandals struck a blow at the flourishing commerce and agriculture, and checked the progress of Christianity which had been introduced and was making way. The Vandals expelled, the Saracen next fell upon it, and divided the country up among a number of petty chiefs, while the people who had, by contact with the Romans, attained a certain degree of civilisation, soon sank into barbarism, and so continued until, in the eleventh century, Abdallah-ben-Yazim laid the foundation of the Arab Empire of the Almoravides, which for more than a century ruled Barbary and a great part of Spain. Under the dynasty of the Almohades the homogeneity of the country fell into pieces, until Ferdinand of Spain subdued it, in 1505. In time, however, Aruch Barbarossa, a Turkish pirate, obtained by force and fraud the upper hand, and introduced that systematic sea robbery for which the country was notorious up to as late a date as 1830. Under the dynasty, both while it was independent, and latterly, when, to save themselves from the Spaniards, they put their country under the protection of the Turks, piracy was a recognised source of revenue in Algiers and the other Barbary States. In the strongly fortified port of Algiers the corsair fleets rode in safety, while the vast numbers of Christians captured supplied slave labour not only in the pirate galleys, but for the construction of various public works rendered necessary for its convenient pursuit. Thirty thousand captives are said to have been employed in the construction of the Algerine Mole for three years; and to such an extent were the merchantmen of all the Mediterranean nations, and others passing along the shores of Barbary, persecuted by these pirates, that in the year 1541 an appeal was made to the Emperor. The Pope backed up this petition by promising a remission of sins and the crown of martyrdom to all who either fell in battle or were taken prisoners in the attempt to crush the Algerian scourges. Charles V. accordingly collected a great fleet and army for the purpose, and would most likely have been successful, had not his ships been scattered and sunk in a storm, and his army almost destroyed by the Algerines, he himself and a few of his followers escaping with difficulty. Up to the year 1683 the pirates increased in power and ferocity, in spite of various chastisements they received at the hands of the Christian Powers. But in that year the French thoroughly humbled them, and soon after the supreme power fell into the hands of the Dey, who owned allegiance to the Sultan of Turkey. The old system having been rapidly re-introduced, Lord Exmouth bombarded Algiers in 1816, and again brought the Dey to his knees, and freed over 1,200 Christian slaves whom he held in bondage. Algiers was, however, soon rebuilt and fortified, and piracy was once more in full blaze, when, in 1830, the Dey, having offended the French Government, was attacked in force and defeated, and his country annexed three years later, on the Government of Louis Philippe giving a pledge to the English that he would limit his conquests to Tunis on one side and to Morocco on the other.

The French, however, proved but indifferent colonists. War with the natives soon followed, and continued spasmodically until Abd-el-Kadr took the field, and obtained such success that for a time it seemed as if he would have utterly routed the invaders and driven them out of the country. But at length, after slaughter, treachery, imbecility, and cruelty, at the very name of which good Frenchmen blush, the Emir, who had made such a stout resistance, had to surrender. Since that date (1847), though at intervals there have been outbreaks of a less serious character, Algeria seems to have become reconciled to the rule of the French. Up to the year 1871 it was under military rule, but since then the establishment of civil institutions in the civilised districts seems to have given it a fresh start in prosperity, for while, in 1879, the "territoire civil" contained only 1,417,879 inhabitants, in 1880 it had been so much extended that it comprised within its bounds the whole population to within half a million.* The French Government in former times was often conducted by soldiers, brave enough in battle, though seldom equally competent as rulers, and not unfrequently more anxious to secure reputation and profit by a brush with the Arabs than to do their best by the country over which they had been placed. At present the colony is divided into the departments of Algiers, Oran, and Constantine (p. 108), the towns of the same name being the capitals of these divisions. Iron constitutes the great mineral wealth of the country, the mine of Ain-Mokra yielding, on an average, 100,000 tons per annum of ore, assaying 65 per cent. of metal. Lead ore of the average value of £126,000 is yearly exported, and copper, lead, cinnabar, antimony, and zinc are among the other metals widely distributed through Algeria, which promises to be among the most productive mining regions of the world. In addition to the crops already mentioned, Algeria grows most of the grains, fruit, &c., of the other Barbary States. Flax is cultivated to some extent, cotton is now less grown than during the American war, and the rearing of the silkworm is prosecuted to some extent. The French rule has also in other respects been to the comfort of the natives. Roads have been formed and bridges built throughout the country; harbours have been formed and lighthouses built. In a region where, fifty years ago, there was scarcely an artificial bridle-path, over 600 miles of railway were built, or in course of construction, at the date of the latest statistics accessible,† while already surveys have been made, and preparations are in course of being entered on, for the sinking of artesian wells in the Sahara, in order to facilitate the construction of a line from the colony to Timbuctoo, and from the frontier of Tunis to Morocco, a distance of 820 miles. In addition, thousands of miles of telegraph form a living network over the country, uniting all the towns and military posts. Since the French occupation, 34,000 acres of good cotton land have been reclaimed by the draining of the marshy lake of Hallula, near Algiers, and many districts hitherto almost uninhabitable, owing to malaria, have been ameliorated by the planting of the *Eucalyptus*, or blue gum, which has the property of rapidly absorbing moisture from the soil. In the treeless

* *Journal officiel de la Republique française*, April 29th, 1880, and Behm and Wagner: "Die Bevölkerung der Erde," No. VI. (1880).

† *Journal officiel de la Republique française*, July 1st, 1880.

A GALLERY IN THE PALACE AT CONSTANTINE, ALGERIA.

central plateau, and in the desert itself, the boring of artesian wells has eventuated in the adaptation of large districts for agriculture and pasturage, for though the water obtained is in many cases brackish, it is abundant in supply, and perfectly well adapted for irrigation. The conquerors have also founded several new towns, or so improved the old ones that they may be characterised as changed in everything but the name and the majority of people who inhabit them. The old town of Algiers is, for example, still distinguished by its crooked passages and high bare walls, with windows looking into courtyards, or with gratings facing the street supplying their places. But the modern or French town, with its fine, broad, elegant streets, and boulevards built of white stone, terrace above terrace, on the amphitheatre facing the bay of the Mediterranean of the same name, is in almost everything European. The houses being of white stone, and the streets arranged in terraces, one over another, with the "Casbah," or ancient fortress of the Deys, forming the apex of the hill, imaginative mariners have likened Algiers to a ship under sail. Ashore, old Algiers is not prepossessing, except to a stranger who has never seen an Eastern town. But the new town is furnished with hotels, clubs, public offices, warehouses, barracks, and other European features, all of a character which at first sight seems strangely out of place in this oasis in the surrounding desert of semi-barbarism. The broad handsome streets are adorned with arcades, and bordered with rows of orange-trees, acacias, and limes, and in the large square known as the Place de Gouvernement, the civilised features of the neighbourhood are heightened by a fountain, round which, in the cool of the evening, the *élite* of the foreign residents assemble to hear the band play, the silent Moors remaining outside, half curious, half contemptuous, over the gathering. A library, a museum, a college, a chamber of commerce, a cathedral, and the presence of the governor-general of the colony, and of the various departmental officials, give Algiers a busy appearance, and render it a comparatively attractive place of residence. Invalids especially have of late years discovered its merits, and hence the number of wan thin faces which may be met with at every step during the winter months. The vicinity is dotted with elegant villas, and the population, at present numbering over 53,000, is yearly increasing. The harbour has been of late years much improved, and the city, though weak on its landward side, is protected by strong fortifications from any attack from the sea. Constantine, named in honour of the Roman Emperor of that name, was anciently one of the cities of Numidia. It is built on a rocky plateau of the northern border range, and possesses a population numbering 39,823, according to the census of 1872. Dellys, Philippeville, La Calle, and Bona are harbours to the east of Algiers, towards the Tunisian borders; those of Mostaganem and Oran lie on the west of the capital, and, with the exception of the latter, which has a population of over 40,000, are of comparatively little importance.

Morocco.

Immediately bordering Algiers is the ancient Empire or Sultanate of Morocco, which for ages has maintained its independence, and is indeed the only North African country of which the same can be affirmed. Up to the fifteenth century the history of

Morocco was much the same as that of the other Barbary States. At that day it was formed into an empire, which for a time was prosperous, and as it extended as far south as Timbuctoo, on the Niger, was more extensive than it subsequently became. This empire having fallen in pieces, the Scheriffs of Tafilet reconstructed a new one, which they extended by the conquest not only of Morocco proper, but of Fez, and at a later date Algeria was incorporated, and the country as far south as Guinea annexed, until the Moorish boundaries joined those of Portugal on the west coast of Africa. Since that date the glory of Morocco has been rapidly on the wane, and its bounds have become materially circumscribed. In 1817, piracy was prohibited, but the lawlessness of the Riff pirates has more than once embroiled the Sultan with the European Powers, while his commendable, though imprudent, zeal in taking the part of Abd-el-Kadr against the French gained for him no greater distinction than the bombardment of Tangiers and the occupation of Mogador. In 1859 the Riff pirates, for whose outrages the Sultan declared himself responsible, brought Spain on the scene, with the result that the Moors were defeated in two battles, several of their ports bombarded, Tetuan occupied, and a treaty forced from the unfortunate ruler by which he agreed to cede portion of his territory, grant Spain certain commercial concessions, and pay a large war indemnity. Since then, "Maghrib-el-Aska," as the Arabs call it, has not been flourishing. A political mildew covers everything. The cities are half in ruins, the roads are bad or non-existent, and the Government is too weak even to restrain the rebellious propensities of some of the many half-wild tribes nominally under its control. By the terms of a congress held in Madrid in the summer of 1880, the other Powers agreed to modify the rather harsh terms which they have hitherto exacted from the Sultan Muley Hassan, "fourteenth of the dynasty of the Alides, and thirty-fifth lineal descendant of Ali, uncle and son-in-law of the Prophet." Otherwise the country is, for an Oriental monarchy, reasonably at peace. It has never attained the prosperity it enjoyed during the reign of Muley-Sidi-Mohammed, between 1757 and 1789. But, on the other hand, it has never sunk to the depth of misery it bottomed during the five years' anarchy which brought ruin on the country after his death, until the grandfather of the present sovereign managed to gain the upper hand. The crown is hereditary in the family of the Scheriffs of Tafilet or Fileli, and each Sultan has the right of choosing his successor among the members of that dynasty. If, however, he does not care to exercise that privilege, the throne falls, as is usual in Mohammedan countries such as Turkey, to the oldest member of the privileged line. Laws, civil or military, except custom and traditions, there are none. The Sultan or his lieutenants are the sole authority. Hence Morocco is a despotism, tempered by the Koran, or rather by the commentary on it by Sidi Beccari, which is accounted even more sacred. The sovereign has no regular ministers, though in the communications he exchanges with European courts the reigning favourites of the hour assume various titles, in emulation of the advisers of civilised sovereigns. The twenty-eight provinces are governed by Kaïds, or governors, who have despotic power within their own districts, but are themselves liable to the loss of life or office at the will of the despot by whom they have been appointed. The revenue is estimated at half a million sterling, but as the salaries of the officials

are merely nominal, they recoup themselves by plundering the public purse to a most unconscionable extent. A minister whose pay is less than a hundred pounds per annum will in the course of three or four years—as Captain Colville has described—manage, out of his frugal earnings, to build a palace, at the cost of many thousands. Even then an army of some 8,000 men is occupied in collecting the taxes from the unwilling people, who number about 3,000,000—the estimates varying all the way from 2,500,000 to 15,000,000—scattered over 260,000 English square miles. Most of them are Moors settled in towns, the remainder being Bedoweens, Jews, and various native tribes. The interior is, however, as yet so partially known, that the character of the inhabitants is only ascertained from hearsay statements, from traders, and other equally dubious authorities. It is, however, stated that fully two-thirds of the country on and beyond the Atlas Range is in the hands of Berber tribes, who only recognise the Sultan's authority when it is brought home to them at the point of a horseman's lance. In number these Berbers (p. 112) far outnumber the Arabs, though the latter, as has almost invariably been the case in the Barbary States, have seized the most fertile maritime region of the country, which stretches from the Straits of Gibraltar to the Tensift River, permitting the former to support themselves by cultivating or by pasturing sheep and cattle over the remaining four-fifths. They live in tents or in villages, but the Moors for the most part have given up a nomad life, and nowadays form the principal inhabitants of the towns. The Jews, as everywhere else, are the wealthiest merchants, and the men of the keenest intelligence. They are found over the greater portion of the interior where there is a chance of doing trade; they are never agriculturists, and accordingly mainly affect the seaports, like Tangiers, Rabat-Saleh, at the mouth of the River Bu-Regreg, once the stronghold of pirates, Azmor and Mogador, the port of the ancient capital, Morocco, which is situated in the interior, near the base of the great Atlas, though the Sultan resides alternately at this city, and at Fez and Mequinez.

Wazan is essentially a holy city, ruled by a Scheriff, who through Islam is held in extreme veneration as a direct descendant of the Prophet, and indeed, in some respects is quite as powerful as his nominal sovereign, the Sultan. The latter, however, being also a "Sheriffa" Arab—that is, a descendant of Mohammed—obtains both inside and outside the country a respect which his political power does not merit. The Prince of Wazan, it may be added, is married to an Englishwoman, and so highly esteems the countrymen of his wife that when Mr. Watson* visited him at Tangiers he readily gave him an introduction to his son, who acts as his deputy; and such was the value of his document that the traveller, who in no way disguised himself, was received with the utmost kindness and courtesy, and received during his whole stay in this fanatical Moslem town no molestation or insult, though hitherto, judging from the account of Dr. Gerhard Rohlfs, it was believed that even a renegade Christian might only venture into the place at as great a risk to his life as if he tried to visit Mecca or Medinah. The city of Morocco is surrounded by immense gardens or orchards, and is defended by a ruined wall and turrets. Some of the main streets are wide, though not handsome, but all travellers—among the more recent of whom is Signor

* "A Visit to the Holy City of Wazan" (1880).

Edmondo de Amicis*—describe them as filthy. The only remarkable feature in the town is the great Mosque, or El Koutoubia, with its minaret 220 feet in height, though the interior decorations of the private houses, and the architecture of many of them, prove that the taste of those who built the Alhambra has not entirely deserted their degenerate descendants. Otherwise Dr. Leared describes the town as being very much like any other Eastern city. Everything, however, wears a more African tinge than on the coast. The negro population, originally brought as slaves, are more numerous here than elsewhere, and there are many indications that the western Arab is several degrees lower in the scale of civilisation than his eastern co-religionist. Hospitality even to "the Kaffir" is still a Moorish virtue, and dignity is the birthright of the meanest of Muley-Hassan's subjects. The stranger to Morocco will, however, find in the Jewish families of the city the most agreeable society. A Mohammedan never dreams of permitting men—and above all, strangers—familiar acquaintance with the members of his household, and as there are no hotels in the interior, the visitor is usually supplied with an empty house in one of the orchards, where he has to form a *menage* for himself. The Israelites, who are for the most part descendants of Jews expelled from Portugal, are very kind to strangers properly introduced, or, as visitors to Morocco are very few, to any one from a civilised land. The ladies of the race are generally singularly beautiful, though among other Oriental practices which they keep up is that of applying kohl to the eyelids and henna to their nails, at least during their youth. In spite of their business capacity making it necessary for even the Sultan to employ them, they are treated with great indignity, and when beyond the reach of consular protection are even robbed and otherwise oppressed.

BERBERS.

In the bounds of Morocco, so-called, are now included the three ancient kingdoms of Fez, Morocco, and Tafilet, the mother-country of the Sultans. As regards its physical geography, the region, as a rule, is mountainous. The immense Atlas range, which gives character to the whole of the Barbary States, traverses it through its entire extent, and sends many lesser branches towards the ocean on the one side and to

* "Morocco: its People and Places" (1879).

the desert on the other. All the rivers flow into the ocean, but it is believed that none of them are navigable; though we know so little of the south that this statement is only made in the absence of more accurate information. These rivers are, in their turn, fed by numerous tributaries, which give fertility to the valleys in the mountain chains, among which the majority of the agricultural population reside. The Kingdom of Tafilet comprises most of the southern provinces, and is inhabited by a rude and fanatical population, beyond the reach of civilised influence, and who scarcely acknowledge the rule of the "Emir-al-Mumein." The other twenty provinces give him less trouble, and are, moreover, the richest, and altogether the best parts of the empire. From a geographical point of view the Atlas range divides the country into two natural sections. The first and more fertile is that which lies on the seaward side of the mountains. Here the rain falls throughout five months of the year, and hence these plains are fertile and comparatively thickly inhabited. The temperature during the rainy season—October to February—is mild, and during the rest of the twelve months is not much hotter than Spain or Portugal. But on the southern side of the Atlas there is only one month of rain and eleven of parchedness, during which the soil has little power to stimulate the growth of scarcely any cultivated crop, and hence the date-palm forms the almost sole support of the inhabitants, who cluster by the wadys or water channels, or in oases such as that on which the town of Abuam is built. Between the Atlantic region and this Saharan land of barrenness there lives a broken mountainous region, partly of steppe and partly of rocky heights, peopled by a bold race of mountaineers, who, in escaping the oppression which the farmers of the plain are unable to resist, find some alleviation from the fact that their poverty gives them little to tempt the cupidity of the official robber.

THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO.

The population is believed to have materially diminished since the sixteenth century, though in some of the seaports the inhabitants, and notably the Jews, who depend on commerce, have slightly increased in number. There is not much wealth in the country, and the little that there is among those immediately under the control of the Moorish officials is, for discreet reasons, not displayed too temptingly. The wandering Arab is poor. His nomadic habits do not permit of the accumulation of much substance, and what little he may have only tempts the cupidity of his neighbour. Hence he is rarely at peace. Tribe wars with tribe, and these dissensions are not likely soon to abate, since it is the unhappy policy of the Government to encourage them, in order, as Dr. Leared remarks, "to preserve the empire from more serious danger." The Moors have considerably more business capacity. These degenerate descendants of the warrior races who in the eighth century overran Spain, and held parts of it with varying fortune until they were expelled, not without having largely contributed to literature, science, and art, are now settled in the principal seaports, where they are addicted to commerce, and are possessed, in many instances, of a good deal of the "filthy ducats" which commerce generates. They are also the ruling race in the country, and fill all the chief offices of profit and trust. The Berbers—the descendants of the old Gaetulian stock by which this part of Africa was once populated—are in the Atlas Mountains north of the city of Morocco farmers, collectors of wax and honey from the bees, and skilful hunters. In the other parts of the Atlas—especially in the Riff province—they are characterised as a turbulent and aggressive people, who were formerly pirates, and still give great trouble to the Government by their quarrelsome disposition and eternal civil war. "The greatest insult one Riffian can offer to another is in saying 'Your father died in his bed,'" for a "cow's death" is among them as disgraceful a taking off as it was among the ancient Scandinavians. The Shluh, another section of the Berbers, live in walled towns, and, so far as we know much about them, are understood to be a more settled race than any of their tribesmen. A well-preserved tradition attributes the origin of the Shluhs to an admixture of Portuguese colonists, and what gives colour to the legend is the fact that in a remote region of the Atlas, near Deminet, the people still point out with superstitious awe the ruins of a church with a Latin inscription. The Shluhs, though a settled people, are by no means deficient in warlike propensities. Fighting is a necessity in these parts, and the women are quite as eager for the fray as the men. They accompany their lords to battle, and not only urge them on, but, if need be, display a savage ferocity, which has more than once, in the tribal combats, turned the tide one way or another. These ladies are rumoured to be gifted with beauty, though, as they muffle about their faces after the Moslem fashion, this statement the most inquisitive traveller must take on the second-hand authority of their nearest relatives. The women of Mequinez are proverbially good-looking; hence a "Mequinasia" is the familiar term applied to any handsome woman. The men have a bold, almost ferocious, yet not unpleasing aspect, though the expression frequently betrays the sensual, ease-loving disposition of the people (p. 97). Capable of enduring great fatigue, when stimulated sufficiently, the Moors are "essentially inert and lazy." Dr. Leared, who thus sums up their character, remarks that "not one of them would take a walk for walking's sake;" and, indeed, it might be added that if

lying down and going to sleep would serve the same purpose, the Moor would prefer it to walking, or even to standing. The Mussulman faith teaching the equality of all mankind, the numerous individuals met with who have marked negro features are in no way considered to have a lower social status than those with purer Arab blood. The late emperor—Sidi Mohammed—indeed, showed unmistakable evidence of his not very distant relationship to some of the Soudan tribes on the borders of his dominions. The negroes are essentially Moors in thought. They have been brought to the country when mere children, and have altogether lost the recollection of their own land and people. Moreover, many of them are the descendants of slaves who have lived for generations in Morocco, and numbers of the freemen are enrolled in the Sultan's body-guard, a position which ensures them many privileges. They will even aspire to the highest offices, and altogether seem, owing to their contact with a higher civilisation, to be a race very much superior to their stay-at-home brethren on the west coast, whom we shall presently look in upon on our way to South Africa, where the finest people on the Continent have established their homes. Still, the Moorish negroes have not adopted Arabic as their tongue, for in their ordinary intercourse with one another they speak a medley dialect of their own, called "Guenaoui." The Jews we have already more than once referred to as a more malleable race, so far as their adaptation to the circumstances of the country is concerned. Some of them fill offices of the highest trust, such as farming the taxes and negotiating business with the outer world, not only for the Government, but for private individuals. In the towns they monopolise some branches of business. Hence, almost all the Moorish butchers, bakers, silversmiths, engravers, tailors, shoemakers, and leather-workers are Hebrews. They, however, rarely take to carpentering, and are not often found as masons, saddlers, curriers, or boatmen. In the southern province of Sus the Jew is considered so indispensable to the prosperity of the country that he is not allowed to leave it, and if he goes to Mogador on business he must deposit some sufficient surety for his return. There are also a few European renegades scattered through Morocco. For the most part they are Spanish convicts, who have escaped from the penal establishments at Ceuta, Melilla, and other places on the northern coast of Morocco. There are also one or two French and Italian rascals of this type, but, so far as Dr. Leared could learn, no British subject, though the troops of the Sultan are drilled and practically commanded by an ex-English officer. The renegades are also employed in the army, but their number is so inconsiderable as to have little effect on the country generally. The other Europeans in the country are mainly confined to the principal seaports—Tangiers (p. 116) and Mogador—the smaller sea-coast towns being entirely left to the natives, while the trade in the interior is carried on at fairs, where European commodities are exchanged through the agency of native representatives.

The future of Morocco is not bright. Progress can scarcely be expected. The Moor is, from want of opportunities, ignorant, and his natural arrogance keeps him from being wise. In his opinion there is no people like the Moors—a belief generally held by most races in regard to themselves—and he recognises European and other inventions with the recognition of distrust. Railroads, telegraphs, and steam-engines, he allows, may be useful to the Giaour, but are unnecessary for the true believer. The

late emperor for a time employed an English engineer to make some improvements and to introduce machinery; but the apathy and ignorance of his successor have effectually neutralised all the good formerly done, and Morocco is to-day pretty much as if it had been unvisited by civilisation since the period when the Moors were driven from Spain. Dr. Leared thinks that in time the country will get opened up. Greed of money is a characteristic of its people, and when that passion exists it cannot fail that sooner or later they must take the best means of obtaining the object of their desires.*

VIEW OF TANGIERS, FROM THE LANDWARD SIDE.

To this brief account of Morocco we need only add that its foreign trade is chiefly with Great Britain, Spain, and France, mainly through the port of Tangiers, which is by far the most Europeanised part of the country. Beans, maize, and wool are the chief articles exported, for, with the exception of leather, which is made in nearly all parts of the empire, and the red caps so universally known as "Fez," from the town of the same name, there are no manufactures proper. Hence the country is almost solely supplied with cotton, gunpowder, arms, glass, sugar, trinkets and ironwork from abroad, though a considerable amount of the million or so obtained from imports is from the caravan trade with the

* "Morocco and the Moors" (1876), pp. 212–301.

Soudan, the Sahara, and other portions of the interior of Africa, where they are exchanged for ostrich feathers, gums, gold-dust, and slaves, in which latter a considerable commerce still goes on. Slavery is, however, in Morocco, as in most Moslem countries, notwithstanding the cruel disposition of the Moors, a very mild institution. The slave is adopted into the family, and lives very much as one of them. He is educated after the fashion of the poorer Moors, he is well fed and clothed, and if he be ill-used he can by law demand to

SHOE SHOP IN FEZ.

be sold. In the latter case he often obtains his freedom by getting a friend to purchase him. Married couples are seldom separated; and though the law is often broken by the connivance of Moorish friends, no Jew or Christian is permitted to own bondmen, the Koran teaching the Moslem to consider it a degradation too great even for a negro to serve any one save a true believer. It is generally understood that at present there are no Christian slaves in Morocco; and most probably, so far as the northern provinces are concerned, this belief is well founded, for if there were, sooner or later the news would come to the ears of the European consuls and diplomatists. There may, however, be a

doubt entertained whether this is the case in the wild, partially-known, and little-frequented southern province of Sus, bordering the Great Desert. Here the propensity from which Robinson Crusoe suffered when he was captured by a "Salee Rover" still exists, and to this day any European who comes within their power runs the risk of being enslaved by the lawless people of this section of the empire. If the unfortunates are not likely to be ransomed they are treated with great harshness, but if they profess Mohammedanism they are allowed more indulgence, though in the latter case their lot is even worse, for they are not permitted to leave the country. In many instances it happens that the captives are sold from tribe to tribe, until they reach the far interior, there to toil beyond the reach of aid, and even of the hope which might buoy up their spirits so long as they remained somewhere near the coast. The great desire, nevertheless, of the freebooters is not to retain a Christian slave, but to open up negotiations for his ransom with his co-religionists settled at Mogador, the town in which are the nearest European consulates. About a century ago the then Sultan, finding it impossible to collect his dues from the ports south of Mogador, closed them to commerce. Nevertheless, traders from the Canary Islands occasionally visit them, and carry on some traffic by barter, which is profitable in a direct ratio to the risk run. About twelve years ago three of these traders were captured by the Sheik of Wadnoon, only five days' south of Mogador, but bearing an evil reputation. For more than seven years they were kept in captivity and well treated, as their relatives transmitted a sum equal to about £10 a month for their support, or as a bribe to the Sheik to abate his cruelty. If, however, the money did not arrive at the usual time, the increased rigour to which they were subjected presaged the treatment they would receive were they from any chance to be dependent solely on the goodwill of their master. At last they were freed, on the Spanish Government paying the sum of £5,400 as ransom. The Ironmongers' Company of London holds in trust a large sum of money, originally left by Thomas Betton, an English Turkey merchant, who had himself been a Moorish slave, for the redemption of slaves in Barbary, and within the memory of men still living collections were made at the church doors for the same purpose. The trust fund was, in 1725, £26,000, but as the interest has been accumulating for many years, owing to the impossibility of finding an object on whom to bestow it, the capital must by this time be very large. The Sheik of Wadnoon is a powerful personage in his part of the country, and his influence extends far beyond the limits of the immediate district over which he rules. If ever the Sahara should be flooded his name is likely to come more prominently before the public, as the entrance to the proposed inland sea must be in part through his country.* It may be added, that Morocco is believed to be rich in iron, copper, antimony, lead, tin, and even gold and silver. But as yet nothing has been done to develop these presumptive sources of wealth.

* Hooker and Ball: "Journal of a Tour in Morocco" (1878); Colville: "A Ride in Slippers and Petticoats" (1880); Maltzan: "Drei Jahre im Nordwesten von Afrika" (1869); Renou: "Description geographique de l'empire de Maroc" (1846); Rohlfs: "Land und Volk in Afrika" (1870); and "My First Stay in Morocco," translated by W. Winwood Reade (1875); Conring; "Morroco, das Land und Leute" (1880).

CHAPTER VII.

Africa: The West Coast Settlements.

Sailing southward from the scene of the Sheik of Wadnoon's kidnapping, we pass the sea-coast of the semi or altogether independent Sahara. There is little here to attract attention. The tribes near the sea are few, and not attractive to those who value their lives or liberties, and the amount of trade to be done too limited to induce the running of many risks. The rollers from the Atlantic break with a dull roar on the long sandy beach, backed by a few palms and a series of dismal dunes, which seem incapable of yielding anything else, until at last we again arrive at the abodes of civilised men, who find it profitable to swelter in the unhealthy regions lying behind the white wall of foam which guards the shore for hundreds of weary miles. Even then there is little to be said about the country which we approach.

Senegambia.

The Senegal and Gambia Rivers flow through it, though its boundaries inland are vaguely defined, and even the exact spot where the territories of the three civilised owners—France, Portugal, and Britain—begin and end are only roughly known. A little land more or less makes very little difference in this swampy jungle. The French have the greatest share of the country, and have established their colonial capital in St. Louis, at the mouth of the Senegal River, though the place where most commerce is transacted is at Dakar, on Cape Verde, and guarded by the fortress of Goree, on the islet of the same name. In addition, there are various other small trading forts further south which do not call for special notice, as they are all of much the same nature. The Portuguese, though they claim also a long extent of coast, concentrate their efforts at Bissao, Cacheo, Farim, and Zinguichor, and on the islets of Bulama and Gallinhas. But the British posts are those which command most attention. As early as the year 1588 the British settled, for trading and slave-dealing purposes, on the River Gambia, three hundred miles of which are now claimed by them. The principal station is Bathurst, on the island of St. Mary, at its mouth, though along the banks of the river for a considerable way into the interior there are bartering stations. The population is reckoned at 15,000, but of these only fifty-five were at the date of the last census whites, even allowing that term a politely elastic meaning. They were either officials, who were perspiring their years of servitude until they could earn the right to be removed to a cooler sphere of usefulness, or traders, who for the sake of the bees-wax, hides, ivory, gold-dust, rice, palm-oil, timber, and ground nuts which are to be bought, dare the notoriously pestilent climate of the region.

Indeed, did we consult our own interests, and not our fears, the settlement would long ago have been given up, for the revenue never meets the expenditure.

Sierra Leone—the "lion mountain"—was ceded by the native chiefs in 1787, and Sherboro Island, which now forms part of it, in 1862. Altogether, including some outlying districts, there are about 462 square miles in this colony, and a population of over 38,000. But of these only 129 were, at the date when this estimate was made, classed as white. Sierra Leone is, in fact, the negro Paradise, and Freetown, its capital, one of the few towns where the black man is not ashamed of his colour. Indeed, a white face is not a recommendation here, though it is one consolation to know that the 129 who are so unfortunate as to be under that ban do not feel their position long, for the climate usually either compels them to remove elsewhere or to succumb. In reality, however, Sierra Leone is much healthier than most other parts of West Africa, though humid and enervating to Europeans, and the scene of periodical epidemics, especially during the months from May to November, when sickness prevails to an alarming extent. Bennie-seed, ginger, india-rubber, gum, copal, hides, palm-oil, cocoa-nuts, and the other products of the coast are the chief exports. Otherwise the place is thriving enough. The revenue is always more than the expenditure, and the colony has already the distinction of a public debt, which it is—unlike more important commonwealths—paying off rapidly.

OIL-PALM (*Elæis Guineensis*).

Senegambia is peopled by negroes, chiefly belonging to the Mandingo and Joloff tribes, many of whom have adopted Christianity. But there are also, in addition, a number of the fair-skinned Fellatah, whose stronghold is further in the interior, where they are zealous propagators of Mohammedanism. In Sierra Leone the blacks are for the most part not natives of the district. Their forefathers were originally slaves captured by our cruisers along the coast, and the settlement was established mainly as a sort of civilising centre for the neighbouring region. The blacks have, however, prospered much, though the heat of the climate deterring—were there no other reasons—Europeans from settling, the town possesses few signs of culture. Rudely built, it is surrounded by mountains embosomed in vegetation, and its wide secluded streets are sown with Bermuda grass, which gives the place a picturesque air. Orange-trees and bananas are everywhere common, grey parrots are the most familiar of pets in wicker cages by the doors,

and the air is scented with the powerful perfume of a hundred strange tropical flowers. Freetown, it cannot be denied, is a charming place to look at on one of those bright mornings which are, like ben-nuts and palm-oil, native to the place. A more lengthened acquaintance with it is apt to disagree with the liver. The population

SENEGAMBIAN NEGROES.

is not now so much recruited by slaves as formerly, for captured negroes—that is, when there are any to capture—are now for the most part sent to the Seychelles, instead of being shot into the "Queen's Yard" in Freetown, there to receive the option of apprenticeship or enlistment in a West India regiment—either of which the terror-stricken ex-bondman gladly accepted, under the belief that the first intention of the captain in landing him was to eat him. The result was not conducive to the virtue of "S'a Leone," for in addition to the fact that very frequently slaves are, or

were, men and women sold out of their country on account of their crimes, the free negro is apt to be forward, and even impertinent, when he can, as in Freetown, lord it over the few whites in the place. To say that in Sierra Leone there are not many very worthy people would be a gross libel on the colony; but at the same time, even with the recollection of the kindly hospitable "coloured" magnates of the place in the voyager's memory, it cannot be denied that the impression left behind is not favourable. Nearly every traveller who has recorded his recollections of "the Coast" tells the same tale. A white man rarely obtains a civil answer, and even the officers of the mail steamers are subjected to insults from the elegantly-dressed "merchants" such as would not be tolerated from any one in a European port. The dicta of the late Mr. Winwood Reade were not understood to be taken literally, and hence the furious maledictions he has received from the more educated Sierra Leonites are, though deserved, unnecessarily severe, as really they affected the opinion of no one whose opinion was of any value to them. His picture of the streets is, however, truthful enough, and in some respects it may stand for that of any other of "the Coast" towns. Street vendors cry cassada cakes, palm-oil, pepper, and pieces of beef under names which are as unintelligible to the stranger as the London street cries would be to a Frenchman. The small market-people live in frame houses, and deal in a humble way or follow handicrafts; the shopkeepers inhabit better houses and seem exceedingly comfortable; while the wealthier merchants, in their stone-built mansions, surrounded by spacious piazzas and furnished with gaudy magnificence, seem to prosper as the civilised African prospers nowhere else in the world. Almost every official—except those temporarily sent out from England, and only too eager to relieve the colony of their presence, when death does not do so even more speedily—has more or less African blood in him, and hence a pale face becomes after a time an object almost disagreeable in its wanness, more especially as white faces in Sierra Leone are invariably rather yellowish and sickly. Pomposity and gaudy raiment soon begin to be considered the natural concomitants of mankind, and the fresh arrival, if a person of meek disposition, is apt by-and-by to feel that his lot has been cast in uncomfortable places. If, on the contrary, his temper is not meek, the chances are that in a still briefer space he will find himself in even hotter quarters than Sierra Leone; for the negro is a full-fledged British subject, and although he does not yet aspire to the privilege of electing Members of Parliament—solely because the Colonial Office has discreetly not allowed him that dangerous toy—he serves as a "magistrat" and sits on juries, who never fail to teach the aggressive pale face that he cannot with impunity injure the feelings, persons, property, or reputation of the dominant race. The Sierra Leone negro glories in being a Briton, but at the same time hates the British, to whom he owes everything, a psychological phenomena which is not difficult to explain. To such an extent is this feeling carried that a white man often hesitates to assert his rights lest his opponent should carry the case before a black jury and get a verdict. Dr. Leighton Wilson adduces, as a proof of the freedman's intelligence, the fact that he sits on petty, grand, and special juries. Intelligent undoubtedly the Sierra Leonite frequently is. In law, medicine, science, and divinity he has

before this distinguished himself; but the evidence of Mr. Shreeve, who resided for many years in the colony, is decidedly in proof that prejudice, when the balance has to be held between white and black, too frequently kicks the beam. Still, with all that can be said against it, Sierra Leone is a remarkable place. No one who really hopes the best for the African race can visit it without pleasure. To us it is creditable as a specimen of philanthropy not run mad. The negro here, if he does sometimes ape the white man with ludicrous effect, is infinitely better than in his native condition. He is civilised, and by settling on different parts of the coast is carrying civilisation among savages, and spreading a knowledge in an elementary form of English institutions and the English tongue. And here, before resuming our voyage down the West Coast, it may be remarked that, apart from the climate, the English have not made the best of their West African colonies. The soil is fertile, and capable of growing all tropical crops; but the cultivation is solely in the hands of the apathetic natives, who live from hand to mouth, and do not therefore care to use proper appliances for raising or even saving the produce of the soil. On the Gambia the French have monopolised nearly all the trade; and while the French Government is doing much to stimulate the growth of their settlements on the Senegal, the Portuguese Chambers have recently set aside a large sum for the European colonisation of Angola, it is notorious that we do nothing, and were it not that jealousy of other nations seizing them deters us, we would not be unwilling to altogether abandon them. In 1821 there were flourishing fields of various medicinal herbs on the Senegal, besides plantations of the cochineal, cactus, and cotton, and the prospects of Europeans were at that date cheering. But one of those periodical failures in the crops which curse West Africa occurred, and the concessionaires having lost their labour and their money, cultivation practically ceased. Indigo was tried, but from errors of judgment and want of experience this also failed. Then silkworms were introduced, but an unusually dry season having destroyed the stock, the attempt was abandoned. Tobacco was planted, and though the locality selected was bad, the crop succeeded fairly well; but the experiment with cayenne pepper proved less favourable. Cactus succeeded, and promised to afford food for an abundant progeny of the cochineal insect, but its culture was not persevered with. Sugar-canes were next planted, and flourished wonderfully; but when the juice came to be boiled, the planters blanched when they discovered it yielded no sugar, owing to their ignorance in planting the canes in swamps and other places subject to frequent inundations. In like manner cotton—for the growth of which West Africa is peculiarly suited—failed, owing to the inexperience of the tyros as regards the essentials of successful culture, and their inability to overcome the initial difficulty of procuring, retaining, and supervising servants. Hence West Africa is at present, and is likely to remain, a black man's paradise.*

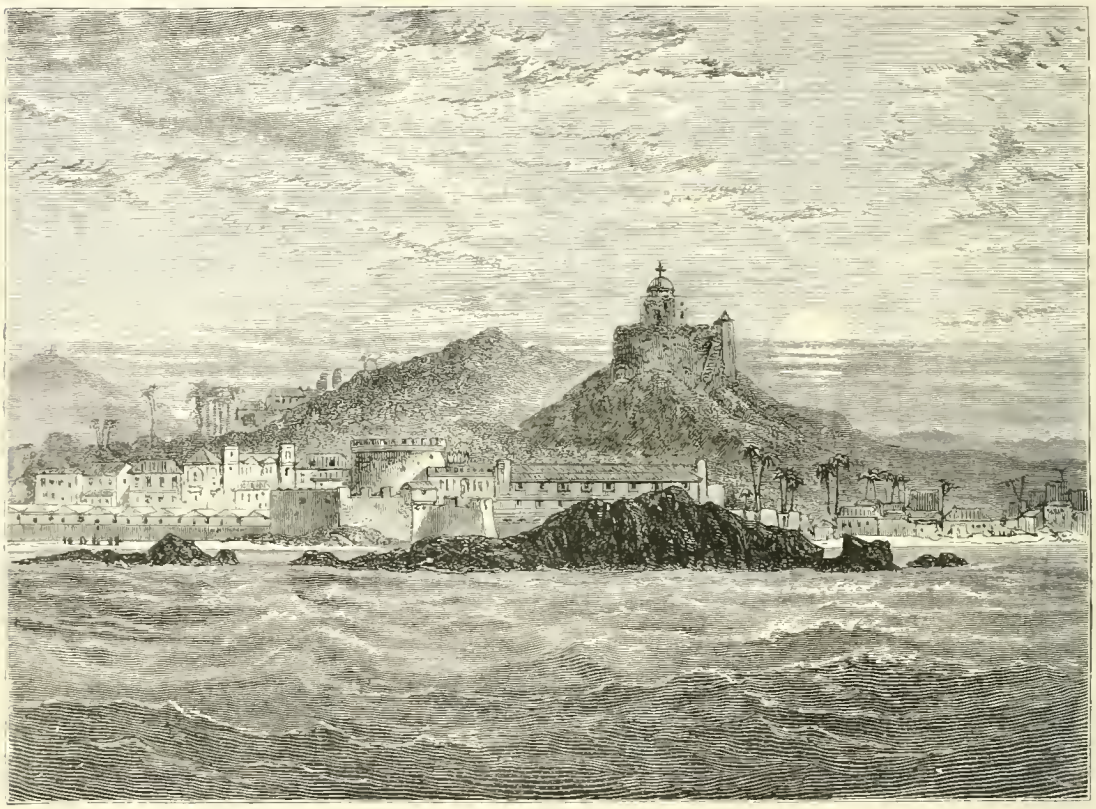
Liberia.

Liberia, which stretches for 100 miles down the Grain Coast,† and inland to the mountain edge of the Central African plateau, is, if possible, a still greater failure. Founded

* Mitchinson: "Colonies and Indies," August 28th and September 18th, 1880: and "The Expiring Continent" (1881).

† So called from the "grains" of the Melequetta pepper forming a main article of trade in the region.

in 1822 by American philanthropists, with the view of demonstrating the negro capacity for self-government, it was proclaimed in August, 1847, a free and independent republic, with sovereign rights. It has not been a success. Anarchy and an absence of all progress have characterised it. It is a black imitation of the great commonwealth whence its earliest inhabitants came, and has all the paraphernalia of a Government, on a model not very well suited to the African character, and still less for the wilder natives in the surrounding country, who, it is hoped, will eventually all join "the Republic." Since



VIEW OF CAPE COAST CASTLE.

the emancipation of the slaves in America an attempt was made to get the "freedmen" to settle in Liberia, but those who were first sent thither have not been charmed with their new home, while the latest arrivals are only too anxious to get away. The Transatlantic philanthropists who established it were very sanguine of its success, and managed so well to infect others with their enthusiasm that large sums for its support were subscribed. The greater part of this fund seems to have been appropriated to the salaries of secretaries, managers, trustees, and other officials, who drew their honoraria with praiseworthy punctuality. But they never did much else, except now and then send over a cargo of freed negroes or runaways. The negro was in Liberia to become a model man, not a dwarfed caricature of the white, as it was asserted he would

turn out if left in America. But according to an account in the *New York Times*, Liberia never bore any serious resemblance to a real Government, and, "viewed as an experiment in coloured *opéra bouffe*, it was produced in a locality where a paying audience could not be found," and hence was a failure. The freed negro develops a curious propensity for three callings. Not as a rule wearing boots, he almost monopolises the business of shoe-black; having no beard, he is the universal barber of the new world; and being black, he is consumed with a desire to whitewash. But

VIEW OF ELMINA.

none of these industries found a profitable outlet in Monrovia, for everybody wanted to do whitewashing, and in that wretched village there was no whitewashing to be done; and as the negro does not grow a beard, the *dernier ressort* of the black man, —namely, a barber's shop—proved an equally poor speculation. Even preaching was a failure, for though thirty churches were speedily built, there was no money to pay the parsons. In this state of matters somebody suggested a "loan," and a "loan"—(they are facetious in Liberia)—was accordingly negotiated in London to the tune of £100,000, issued at 85, with interest at the rate of 7 per cent., and repayable in fifteen years. On this sum no interest has ever been paid since it was borrowed, in 1871. But though the Liberian "loan" is a sore subject with some confiding people in England, it was

very popular in Monrovia, for while it lasted everybody had a Government office, and it is just possible that if the coin had held out long enough a few poor whites might have been imported to wait upon the grandees and black their boots—that is, if there had been any boots to black under the equator. But the £100,000 came to an end, and as there is, for obvious reasons, not the slightest possibility of any more being got, Liberia threatens to come to an end also, as the revenue of about £12,000, derived mainly from customs, has of late years been exceeded by the expenditure. There is little trade; the surrounding tribes do not take kindly to the Republic, and Indian corn and watermelons is not an inspiriting diet. Nevertheless, its name is in the *Almanach de Gotha*, and men of little faith are every now and again stimulated out of scepticism by a notice that So-and-So has been elected President, and in a "message to congress" has expressed his unalterable determination to "rehabilitate the credit of the nation," or that the "Hon." Mr. This or That has been appointed Minister to a civilised country. The truth is that in Liberia there are only 19,000 civilised negroes and 700,000 savages. The latter despise their civilised brethren as lazy chatterers, who are bringing the negro race into discredit, and it is just possible may settle Liberia, unless some other Government takes pity and annexes it. Meantime, their newspapers enlarge with grandiose loquacity on the necessity of enlarging the bounds of the Republic. It is, however, only fair to say that the Liberians have displayed much zeal in repressing the slave trade and in obtaining education. The country in the interior, as elsewhere along the African coast, rises; but the coast-lying portion of the Republic, which is chiefly inhabited, is low, with a climate altogether unfavourable to Europeans, though, owing to improvements by drainage, it is no better than any other portion of the West African shore. Rice, cassavas, yams, oranges, bananas, pineapples, cocoanuts, tamarinds, and other tropical fruits grow profusely, and palm-oil is exported to a very considerable extent. The dense forests which cover so much of the country also abound in dye-woods, ebony, copal, and other trees. Coffee is, however, the crop for which Liberia is famed, the variety cultivated there being highly esteemed, and is capable of forming a much higher item in the export of the Republic than it at present does. Iron and copper exist, though they are not worked; the woods abound in monkeys and small wild animals, but the larger fera have deserted them, or been for the most part killed off. The negro is not—though the accounts are rather contradictory—improving in Liberia, owing to his not, as in America, coming in contact with a higher civilisation. The Kroomen who inhabit the country on each side of Cape Palmas are a native race of labourers, well known on board every ship on the coast.*

Monrovia, the capital of Liberia, is not an impressive place. It is built on the Peninsula of Cape Mesurado, near the river of the same name, and resembles in its frame houses, raised on stone or brick foundations, nearly everything else in Liberia, a close imitation of a village in the Southern States of America, from whence the majority of the tame section of the population came. There are a few other villages in addition to the capital, but the population is for the most part concentrated about Monrovia. Britain, which was the first Power to recognise Liberia—the United

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., p. 162.

States being the last, its recognition having been withheld until the South lost power in 1861—presented the young Republic with a four-gun corvette. National defence is otherwise provided for by a militia.*

The Gold Coast.

Still voyaging down the shores of Africa, we come to the Gold Coast, so called because from this region was secured in early times the gold-dust which was the chief source of the world's supply of that metal, and from which "guineas" were made, the country of "Guinea" being popularly associated with the source of the gold supply. To this day, gold-dust is extensively washed out of the soil, and forms an important material of trade. But before coming to the Gold Coast we pass a little strip still known as the "Ivory Coast," though ivory is no longer traded here, and the old French posts of Assinie and Grand Bassam are no longer occupied. At first our settlements on these shores were, like those of other nations, intended mainly with a view to the establishment of factories for the prosecution of the slave-trade, though it is interesting to note that ever since that trade was pronounced penal these factories have become the best means of checking the traffic, and leading the natives to resort to some more legitimate commerce. The Gold Coast comes under that category. Originally held by the Dutch in common with us, it passed, in 1873, solely under our control, when these possessions of the Netherlands were transferred to Great Britain. Palm-oil is, of course, one of the main products, but gold in small grains, gum-copal, monkey skins, &c., are also among the exports from Cape Coast Castle (p. 121), Elmina (p. 125), Accra, Axim, and Dixcove. Up to the year 1876 Cape Coast Castle was the capital of the colony, but since that date Accra, the old Dutch head-quarters, has been selected on account of its more healthy site.

The appearance of the country is singularly monotonous. A long line of white breakers guards the beach at most places, and behind the stripe of white sand lies in most places a dense tropical forest, stretching back for a distance varying from fifty to three hundred miles, until the central plateau begins to rise. This is, indeed, the general characteristic of most parts of the African shores, and the feature which renders the coast so unhealthy, and the interior therefore so dangerous to penetrate. Through this damp forest border a number of rivers creep to the sea, the principal of which is the Volta. The course of this drainer of the western watershed of inner Africa is as yet only partially explored, but it is known that, in addition to the trading posts and native villages on its lower course, Salaha, or Paraha, a commercial town of some 18,000 people, is situated higher up, though difficult to be reached, except during the rains in September and October, when the river rises fifty feet, and steamers can easily go over the shallows in the lower part of the river, and even over the Labelle Rapids. The inhabitants are of two types—the Tshi, or black, and

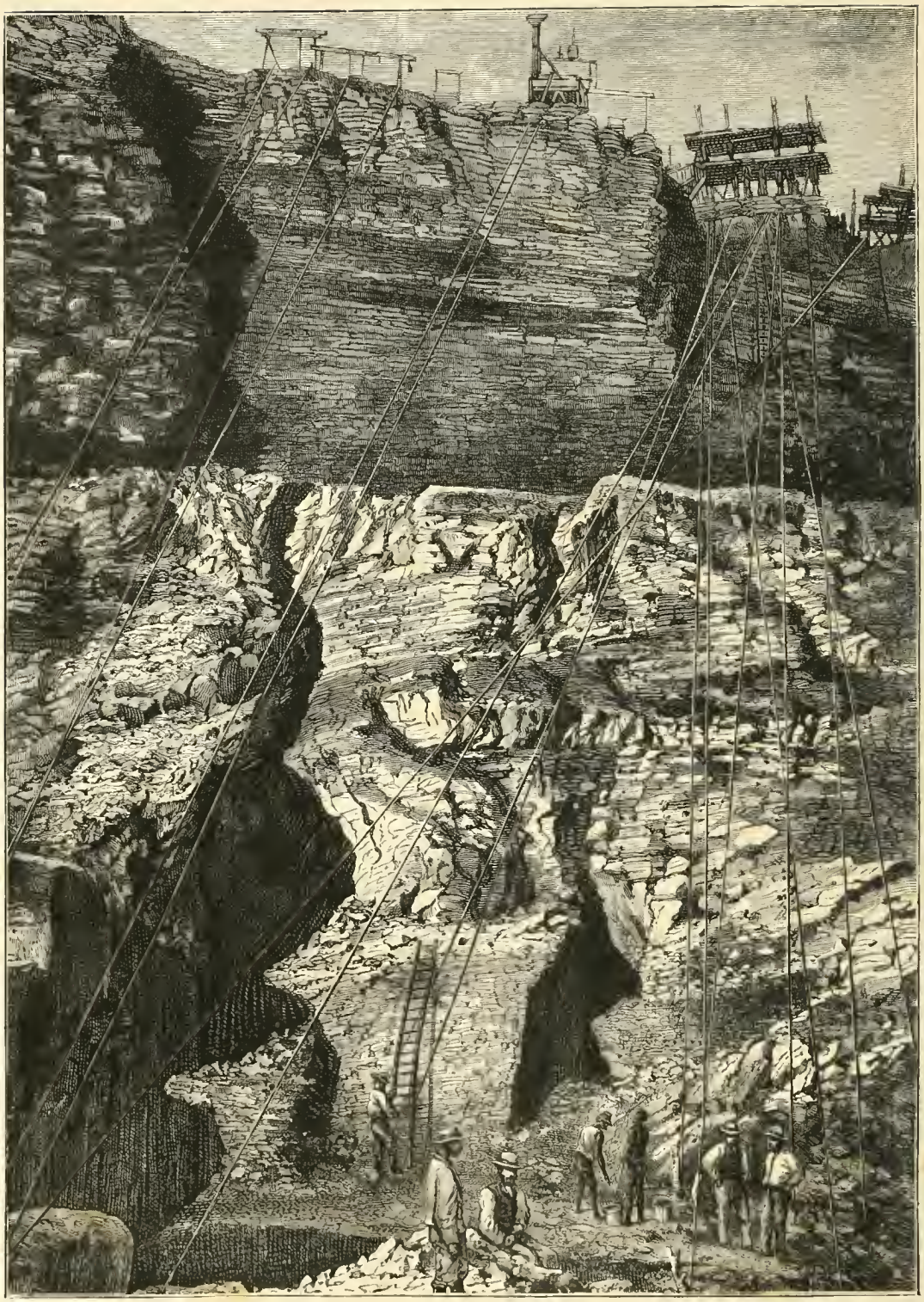
* Bowen: "Central Africa" (1857); Thomas: "West Coast of Africa" (1860); Hutchinson: "Impressions of West Africa" (1858); Wilson: "Western Africa" (1856); Stockwell: "The Republic of Liberia" (1868); Ritter in "Zeitschrift für allgemeine Erdkunde," Vol. I., and "Unsere Zeit," Vol. III., etc.

the Accra, or "red" negroes. The latter, like the Kroomen, are found as labourers and sailors all over the coast, and are employed by the shore tribes as middlemen and interpreters. The Akims are forest tribes, living by hunting, gold-washing, and the gathering of wood snails. The Aquapems are agriculturists and traders; the Adangme are rude athletic savages; while the Crobos may be characterised as palm-oil traders, living in the midst of woods of palm-oil trees. These are, however, only a few of the numerous tribes which dot the coast, and who may be said to live, move, and have

VIEW OF COOMASSIE, THE CAPITAL OF ASHANTI.

their being in palm-oil, just as they had at one time in "black ivory"—otherwise slaves—eked out with ebony sticks, and the various products which we have already noted. Civilisation of the kind they meet with among the traders is not calculated to impress them with a high opinion of the whites; but both Mohammedanism and Christianity are making some way amongst these people. The Moravians arrived here as early as 1736, the Wesleyans in 1836, and the Basel missionaries are well established at Akropong, the capital of Aquapem, 1,800 feet above the sea level.

The country is generally about as unfit for European settlement as it is possible for any part of Africa to be. Cattle and horses cannot live on account of the Tsetse fly, the bite of which is fatal to them: and the climate is about equally



A DIAMOND MINE AT KIMBERLEY, GRIQUALAND WEST.

deadly to mankind. At Cape Coast Castle—still the principal station, though not the official capital—the great "church-like fort," surrounded by a dirty native village, is the chief feature of the place. The few European residences are built in the woods overlooking the castle. The thermometer ranges from 72° to 85° or 90°, and the air is always laden with moisture, so that it is difficult to preserve anything from damp and mould. Elmina is also a considerable town, but not much

A FACTORY AT LAGOS.

healthier, the fearful mortality of both this place and Cape Coast Castle being formerly aggravated by a custom, which then prevailed, of burying the dead in the floors of the houses of the living. The swamps and lagoons—and the remarks apply to the whole coast, from Sierra Leone almost to the boundaries of the Cape Colony—are festering haunts of fever, and, according to Dr. Gordon,* the granite, in which iron and hornblende are present, gives off under the heat and rain large quantities of sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

* "Life on the Gold Coast" (1874); Horton: "Medical Topography of the West Coast of Africa" (1867); Allen: "The Gold Coast" (1874); Buhl: "Die Basler Mission auf der Guldküste" (*Evangelisches Missions—Magazin*, 1877); and article in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* (9th Edition), Vol. X., pp. 755 757.

Intermittent and remittent fever (the latter known as "coast fever"), and dysentery, are particularly fatal to Europeans, and though the natives live to a good age, the rainy season often brings to them attacks of pleuritis, pneumonia, rheumatism, bronchitis, and catarrh.

Gold-digging is still pursued in an irregular, unscientific fashion on the coast, especially in the vicinity of the Volta, where the soil is pitted by the holes dug by the prospectors.* But the climate is too trying for an European ever to dream of attempting to work here. Those who failed to succeed in the Isthmus of Panama will be still less likely to endure the much more enervating atmosphere of the Gold Coast. Canoes are made out of the silk cotton-tree (*Bombax*), and the "odoom" is used for house and cabinet work. The bread-fruit succeeds in the one or two places to which it has been introduced. Guinea corn (*Sorghum vulgare*), Guinea grains (*Amomum grana-paradisi*), the egg-plant (*Solanum ovigerum*), kola nuts (*Sterculia acuminata*), &c., are also crops which are grown here in addition to those mentioned. Tobacco and cotton are indigenous, though they are not cultivated by the lazy natives; but the Basel missionaries have for some time reared coffee at their cooler stations. The revenue of the Gold Coast averages £67,000, and its expenditure is usually about the same. There is no public debt, and the imports seem from the latest statistics to be of about the same value as the exports. The chief native tribe about Cape Coast Castle are the Fantis, and behind is the country of their natural enemies the Ashantis, whose large capital, Coomassie (p. 128), was destroyed by the British in 1872, and is now being re-built; though of the doings of King Coffee, and more especially of the balance of that gold-dust fine to which he was sentenced, we have heard little or nothing for a very long time.

From Accra southward the shore is decidedly monotonous. The air is clouded with the haze which accompanies the land breeze, and borne on its breath, Mr. Skertchley remarks in his graphic description, comes the earthy, mildewy smell of the decomposing vegetable matter in the lagoons, which run parallel to the coast for miles; while the hollow roar of the surf beating on the sandy shore lulls the voyager to sleep in his hammock. As the sun rises the mist is dispersed, the eye rests on a long unchanging line of "olive green, broken here and there by a solitary palm or cotton-tree rising above the general level, and occasionally relieved by a rift destitute of vegetation." Nearer shore there can be detected "a long strip of bright yellow sand," which seems to rise out of the bosom of the dark grey sea, while a sudden "streak of gleaming, dazzling white foam, and a dull, hollow, booming sound mark out the plan of rupture of some huge billow." By-and-by the man on the look-out reports Mount Pulloy. This "mount" is merely a clump of cotton-trees, which marks the approach to the King of Dahomey's country, a strip of which intervenes between the Gold Coast and our territory of Lagos, immediately south of it, a circumstance which has already given rise to various complications, of both a financial and a political character. The capital of this powerful native kingdom is in the interior, at Abomey, Whydah being only the traders' town on the coast, the outlet through which

* Burton: "Wanderings in West Africa by a F.R.G.S." (1863); Hay: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XLVI. (1876), p. 301; Croft: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1874). Some account of the gold region of Bambouk, on the River Gambia, will also be found in *The Colonies and India* for June 19th and July 3rd, 1880. There is at least one European Company with native labourers operating.

the Dahomeyans export their produce, and the inlet by which they import their powder, muskets, cottons, rum, and other European luxuries. Viewed from the beach, it is not an imposing port. The roads are about as uncomfortable an anchorage as could be desired; the vessels roll about until they would seem to turn bottom up. Landing is always difficult, but when the surf breaks badly, communication between the ships and the shore is often cut off for days at a time. All that can be seen from the sea is a long ridge of sand capped by a straggling line of buildings, the monotony hardly relieved by a few irregular trees. The surf boats are frequently swamped; and one can well believe Mr. Skertchley's statement that during the slave-trading times the sharks were well fed, for the heavily-laden boats were filled with manacled cargoes, so that if they capsized the unfortunates had no other fate open to them but either to be drowned, or be swallowed by these ravenous sea-monsters, which are ever cruising up and down within the outer line of breakers, on the scout for any such chance of a sumptuous meal. The main town lies a little back from the beach; but of Dahomey, as of the other negro kingdoms on this coast, it is unnecessary to speak, as they are all very much like the country we have already noticed, and have, moreover, in common with the domestic economy of the whole of this region, been fully sketched elsewhere.*

We are now, however, on what used to be known as "The Slave Coast," a name which sufficiently expresses its ancient reputation, and one which, formerly, it so fully deserved. At present, it is, like the rest of the coast, devoted to palm-oil. *Lagos* is our chief settlement here (p. 129). Situated at the mouth of the Lagos River, protected by an island in a lagoon and by spits of land from the swell of the Atlantic, it has attracted to it so considerable a trade in sugar, cotton, tobacco, coffee, ivory, and, of course, palm-oil, that enthusiasts fond of figures of speech know it as "the Liverpool of West Africa." Up to the year 1861 a trade in slaves was also done here. Accordingly, the British determined to permanently occupy it, and this was done under a formal cession by Docemo, the native chief. Since that date, and especially since 1874, when it became an integral part of the Gold Coast Government, the colony has made, for West Africa, really rapid advances. Legitimate commerce has increased, and as lead ore, indigo, and camwood abound, Lagos may yet attain to something approaching what in other parts of the world is known as prosperity. From Lagos to Rabba, on the Niger, a distance of 250 miles, there is now a bi-weekly post, and the revenue (£60,000) is more than sufficient to meet the expenditure. The exports (£600,000) are also considerably greater than the imports, leaving to the credit of the colony a very large balance to be invested in various ways. Lagos has also the advantage that by means of its lagoons it can communicate with Benin, and by way of the River Lagos can carry on an inland trade with Abbeokuta, another important centre of native commerce. The colony comprises the settlements of Badagry, Lagos Island, Palma, and Leckie, and a population, exclusive of 100 Europeans, of 60,000 blacks. But the only workers in the country are the Kroos, who land the goods, store them, and drag the carriages in a country where neither mule nor horse can live. Agriculture has, however, no charms for them, and hence the soil is neglected, the natives devoting themselves to palm-oil and tribal wars.

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., pp. 46—198.

Still keeping down the coast, we come to "The Bights," so familiar to the palm-oil traders. The Bights or Bays of Benin and Biafra are at the bottom of the Great Gulf of Guinea, and the first-named may be described as the country through which the once mysterious Niger crawls, amid swamps and rotting vegetation, to the sea. Again, to use the terms which long habit have made familiar, Sierra Leone, Liberia, and the various coasts and bights are included under the name of Upper Guinea. The Niger is, indeed, the great feature of this region. It gives character to it, for the twenty-two chief channels through which it reaches the ocean are bordered by

THE PALACE AT SEGO.

mangrove swamps, the most pestilent of the many breeding-places of fever; on these shores. A considerable trade is, however, now carried on by light draught steamers, which ascend a considerable way into the interior, bartering European goods for the usual products of the country, and for the thick oil obtained from the seeds of a *Bassia*, under the name of "Shea butter." The natives are, however, warlike and treacherous, and though the vessels are well armed, outrages are being constantly committed. Also at the head of the Delta is the great trading town, and at Lukoja, at the mouth of the Binue,* is the mission-station under the charge of Bishop Crowther, a native

* Hutchinson: "Ascent of the Binue" (*Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1880), p. 289; Burdo: "A Trip up the Niger and Benueh" (1880); Paulktschke: "Die geographische Erforschung des afrikanischen Continents" (1880).

of this region. Here also for some years was a consulate, under the control of the devoted Dr. Baikie, but it is now abandoned, and, in addition to its religious aspects, Lukoja is at present the chief depôt of the Liverpool traders who traffic on the river. Onitsha and Iddah are also places of some importance, but the large Mohammedan town of Egga, in the kingdom of Gando, is at present the limit of ordinary European trade on the river.

Higher up, away into the interior of Africa, there are a great number of more

VIEW OF KANO, IN SOKOTO.

or less important "kingdoms," about which comparatively little is known, mainly owing to the difficulty of reaching them, though perhaps still more on account of the mistaken impression that there is not very much to know about them. In this district, which is a part of that immense region vaguely known as the Soudan, the hilly country in which the Senegal, Gambia, and other Senegambian rivers rise, forming the kingdom of Fula-jallon, is the most westerly. It is fanatically Mohammedan. The Mandingo Negro country, inland from Sierra Leone and Liberia, is little known. Bambarra occupies the Upper Niger region. Its capital, Sego (p. 132), is a considerable walled town, and Sansandig is a place of

much trade for the caravans coming overland from Morocco. The Mohammedan people called Haussas—a branch of the Fulahs—have formed States in the central part of the Niger basin, and its tributary, the Binue, the chief of which is Massina, which contains some large towns, including the well-known Timbuctoo, which, though not the greatest in the kingdom, is the one most familiarly known by name, owing to the caravans which come across the desert to it. Gando stretches down the river to Binue, and east of it extends Sokoto, a territory as large as Great Britain. In addition to many other towns, Gerhard Rohlfs describes the city of Yakoba, north of the Binue, as so large that, including the gardens contained within them, it takes three hours and a half to walk around its walls. The kingdom of Bornu, in the basin of Lake Chad, is a civilised negro Mohammedan kingdom of great beauty and fertility, but the centre of the slave trade which flourishes in the capital. This town, Kuka, is only inferior to Kano, in Sokoto (p. 133). Mr. Johnston, on whom we rely for these data, mentions that its streets are morning and evening so crowded with cattle, camels, sheep, and poultry as scarcely to leave room for the bustling population. Bornu is famous for its horses, and accordingly a great auction of these animals is held morning and evening outside its gates. Baghirmi,* of which Dr. Nachtigal, the German traveller, has written an account as late as 1872, is another negro kingdom, as civilised and well governed as Bornu. But by the latest intelligence it appears to have been invaded, and its capital, Masena, captured by the Sultan of Wadai. This is another State in close vicinity, but though warlike, it is far behind Bornu in civilisation, and is ruled by a code so ruthless that death would appear to be the punishment awarded for the most trivial crime.† Still further east we come to Darfur and Kordofan, which, being now incorporated with Egypt, we have already touched on (p. 85). Returning to the mouth of the Niger, we are again in what the traders know as "the Rivers." There are not only the mouths of the Niger, up which are the palm-oil towns of Bonny, &c.,‡ but the estuaries of the Old Calabar and Cameroon Rivers, which collectively are the palm-oil rivers, about the "health" of which vague scraps of intelligence find their way into the newspapers, and whose tribes are at intervals at war with each other. The climate is, as a rule, excessively bad—so bad, indeed, that the traders mostly live in hulks on the river, thatched over like houses, and fitted up in the interior for domestic and business purposes. These hulks are the "settlement," and to them come the canoes with palm-oil and other articles of barter. After the oil has been boiled down, to free it from the sand with which it is habitually adulterated, it is stored in sheds ashore, and at intervals shipped to Europe and America.

Lower Guinea.

Under this name we pass another stretch of the dismal West African coast, not differing much from that which has already been described, extending 1,500 miles

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., pp. 1-39.

† These negro kingdoms, visited during 1879 by some German and Italian travellers, it is calculated, cover an area of 550,000 square miles, and have a population numbering over 31,500,000. This is perhaps an over estimate.

‡ "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., pp. 116-144.

f· ' to south, from the Bight of Biafra to Cape Frio. Off the northern part of the opposite the high peaks of the Cameroons, are four islands in line. Fernando 36) belongs to Spain. It is wooded to a height of 10,190 feet, and Clarence Ha..ar is noted as one of the most beautiful spots in West Africa. It is also one of the most unhealthy; though, were the mountain cleared and houses erected on the top, it could be made almost a sanatorium. At one time the island was a settlement for political convicts, but it is now almost given over to the native tribe of Aniyo, or "Boobies"—a race of singularly low intellectual development—and to Sierra Leone negroes and Kroomen.

The Ilha da Princa, or Prince's Island, is, as its name indicates, Portuguese. The town of San Antonio is built on a lovely bay. "Tier over tier of forest trees form the sides, and a volcanic peak, also covered with trees, might be regarded as a kind of gallery. The continuous rustling of the leaves in the wind, and the dull moan of the waters falling on the beach," reminded Mr. Reade of the hum of human crowds. Very few whites live on the island, the inhabitants being, for the most part, either negroes or mulattoes. There are, however, many churches, and from here and the island of St. Thomas novices are despatched to the mainland to do what they can for the evangelisation of the pagans. But in spite of all the churches and the priests and the novices, morals in Princa, as in the other islands and on the mainland, are lamentably low.

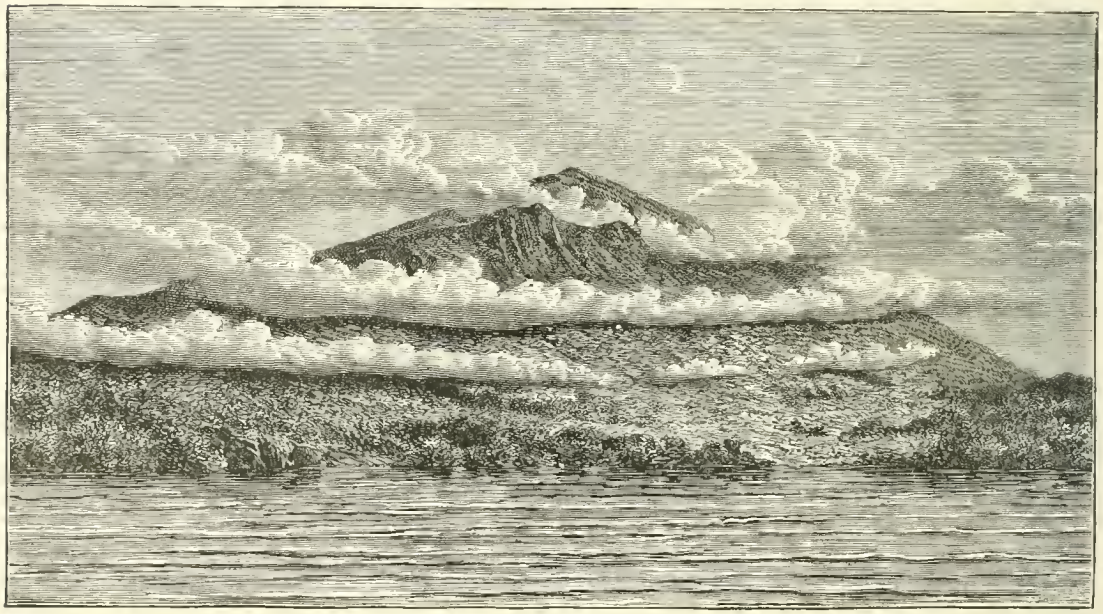
San Thome, or St. Thomas, is another Portuguese isle, with a peak over 7,000 feet in height, and is as lovely as any of its neighbours. The slave trade was at one time pursued with great alacrity on all of these islands, but is now, nominally at least, at an end, though domestic slavery still exists; and, if all tales are true, the traffic is connived at by the officials both here and on the west and east coast mainland, where also the Portuguese have colonies. Coffee is the chief crop, and of excellent quality, but beyond this the island has little trade. It is not healthy. In the olden times it used to be known as the Dutchman's graveyard, for its great fertility gives rise to malarious exhalations. In 1484 Joaõ II. of Portugal, hearing of this fact, gave the Jews in his kingdom the option either of colonising the island or being baptised. They accepted the latter alternative, and the result was a mixed race, though at the present day the Hebraic features seem to have been lost. This fact one traveller notes as decidedly providential, since a union of the Jew and the negro would be, commercially speaking, dangerous to Christianity. The Angolares are the descendants of slaves, who, rising against the officers of a ship which in 1544 anchored near the island, took to the bush, and uniting with the aboriginal savages, were for long the terror of the island, and its all but ruin, until they were subdued and had to abandon their rapacious habits, or rather, to indulge them in the less aggressive direction of driving hard bargains in canoes, fruits, birds, and calabashes.*

Annobon is a Spanish isle, and is almost as beautiful and quite as fertile as the others. These islands are all volcanic, and the soil is very rich—too rich, it is

* Reade: "Savage Africa," p. 275.

said, for sugar-cane. Mr. Reade calls them "volcanic flower gardens." Geologically speaking, they are sea-lying bits of the neighbouring range of mountains, of which the Peak of Cameroons, 14,000 feet high, is the most striking feature. These islands dwindle in altitude as they go south, from 10,190 feet in Fernando Po to 2,000 feet in the island last mentioned; and in the same way the Sierra del Crystal, on the mainland, gets lower and lower as the south is approached, and in most particulars is—physically, geologically, and botanically—the same as the detached bits of it in the sea to the westward.

We are now close on the equator, and in Corisco Bay, and San Juan are again in Spanish possessions. By the Gaboon inlet and the mouths of the Ogowe River are



THE PEAK OF FERNANDO PO.

French colonies, though the Fan negroes are still the chief people in this part of the country. Loango, Angoy, and Kakongo are native States, well wooded, hilly, and comparatively healthy, compared with the low mangrove-covered shores of the French possessions, and producing, in addition to all the usual crops of the region, copper and coffee, and also sending abroad some ivory, obtained, however, from tribes still further in the interior. We now come to the Congo, or Zaire, the chief tributary of which rises in Lake Tanganyika, and after a long course through half of Africa, among the villages of wild tribes which line its banks, pours its waters into the sea in territory claimed by Portugal. The river is navigable for a few miles from its mouth, though, doubtless, small steamers could, if the various rapids were overcome, ascend far into the interior. Mr. Stanley, who was the first to descend it, is at present endeavouring to accomplish this task under the auspices of the Belgian Exploration Society, and some Wesleyan and Catholic missionaries are also penetrating with some

AN ENCAMPMENT ON THE RIVER CONGO.

success along the same highway into Inner Africa. The task is, however, difficult, for the tribes on the banks seem of the most ferocious description, and treacherous beyond anything with which African travellers have hitherto had much experience. Mr. Stanley,* with a kindly enthusiasm fully appreciated, proposed to call this river the Livingstone. But as this would have been an innovation on all the established rules of geographical nomenclature, it has not been adopted. The country on either side of the Congo is remarkably different. North of it there are lagoons and swamps covered with the sickly mangrove and backed by dense forests, such as we have seen on the Niger and its tributaries. South of the great river we come into a country covered with coarse grass, and scattered with occasional baobab-trees, or *Euphorbias*, while little forest can be seen from the ocean; and inside of feverish lagoons we have long stretches of sandy bays, such as prevail on to the Cape of Good Hope. But as we travel back from the shore the country rises terrace by terrace, with corresponding changes of vegetation, the climate getting moister as the more densely-clothed interior is approached, until on the third and highest terrace great plains, covered with gigantic grasses, make their appearance. At the mouth of the river there are several foreign trading stations, or factories, established on a sandy strip of coast, called Banana. Some forty-five miles further up there are the stations of Punta da Lenha (Wooded Point); and at Em-bomma, or as the traders call it, Bomma, sixty miles from the mouth of the river, there are the highest of all the foreign settlements. Here are Portuguese, English, French, Dutch, and St. Helena traders, amounting, at the date of the last census, to about eighteen. The neighbouring country is singularly sterile. According to Mr. Stanley, it is bleak in the extreme. "Shingly rocks strewed the path and the waste, and the thin sere grass waved mournfully on level and spine, on slope of ridge and crest of hill; in the hollows it was somewhat thicker; in the bottoms it had a slight tinge of green." The six factories at Bomma are all constructed of wooden boards, roofed in the generality of cases with corrugated zinc. Business is transacted in the ample court-yard attached to each factory. This consists in bartering calico, glass-ware, crockery, iron-ware, gin, rum, arms, and gunpowder, for palm-oil, ground-nuts, and ivory. The merchants live tolerably comfortably. Some of them have fruit and garden vegetables, and little vineyards, while pineapples, guavas, and limes may be obtained from the market, which is held on alternate days behind the European settlement. In earlier times Bomma was a great seat of the slave trade; and to this day Tuckey's description of the people, though written fifty-four years ago, is still perfectly applicable. They are as rude, superstitious, and pagan as ever they were, the efforts of the missionaries having as yet scarcely impressed the solid mass of primæval barbarism. They still distrust strangers as much as ever, are still as intolerant of any innovation in their customs, and their lust after rum and idleness is as marked to-day as half a century ago. It may be added that were slaves salable the Congoese

* "Through the Dark Continent" (1878), Vol. II., p. 117. In these volumes will be found the best account of the river generally, and the only one of the interior of the country through which it flows. In the works of Tuckey, Bastian, Burton, Duparquet, Cameron, Livingstone, and Monteiro will also be found—more especially in the last named—ample particulars regarding the Portuguese possessions.

would not be wanting in alacrity in obtaining them, and we may be perfectly certain that barracoons for their reception, and smart skippers for their shipment, would speedily reappear on the scene of the old—though it is affirmed, so far as the Portuguese and Spanish isles and colonies are concerned, not altogether extinct—traffic. In early days the Congo country extended far south of the river, and in the capital of the then kingdom the Jesuits resided and reared a cathedral, the remains of which still exist, and owing to the priestly influence obtained great power throughout the country. The monarch was often ruled by females, the tales of whose ferocity were stock subjects for the early chroniclers.* The empire of Congo is, however, now a something of the past, though in the neighbourhood of Ambassi the nominal king still exercises sufficient control over the people to be able to annoy the caravans passing to and from the interior; but a score of local chieftains have as much authority as he.†

Though the Portuguese claim the coast from a point considerably north of the Congo, they have never actually occupied it north of eight degrees of south latitude; and here the reader must note that we are getting south of the equator, and shall soon be in a region where the seasons are reversed, and summer winter, and winter summer. Angola is the name applied to the Portuguese possessions in West Africa; Ambriz, Loanda, Benguela, and Mossamedes the names applied to the four provinces into which it is divided. The description given of the Congo country applies with tolerable exactitude to it, and the products are much the same. The elephant is not now met with in the maritime region, but in the less populous regions antelopes, zebras, buffaloes—not, it need scarcely be remarked, the American bison, which is popularly known by that name—hyænas, jackals, leopards, and the large dog-faced monkey. In such a dry country vegetation cannot be but scanty. Yet the almost rainless province of Mossamedes is celebrated for the huge and altogether extraordinary *Welwitschia mirabilis*, though it is also found in Damara Land and the neighbouring region. There are no domestic animals except goats, swine, dogs, cats, and a few sheep, with hair instead of wool. The goats are very beautiful, but the other quadrupeds are rather woe-begone specimens of their kind. The natives do not use beasts of burden, and the horses, asses, mules, and camels introduced by the Portuguese have died out. The Congoese have never kept horned cattle, though they thrive well enough in the few places on the coast where they are reared under the care of the whites. The natives in some parts of the country still retain traces of the civilisation and even of the literary culture introduced among them by the Jesuits, but south of the Coanza River the land is left almost solely to wild hunting tribes, who, in their taste for the ownership of cattle, and in the use of the assegai and "knobkerrie," resemble the Kaffir race, with whom they live in close proximity. The country abounds in many natural resources, including gum-copal, iron, and copper, and is capable of growing coffee and many other crops. But hitherto it has been governed by the Portuguese in a manner which almost precluded the possibility of

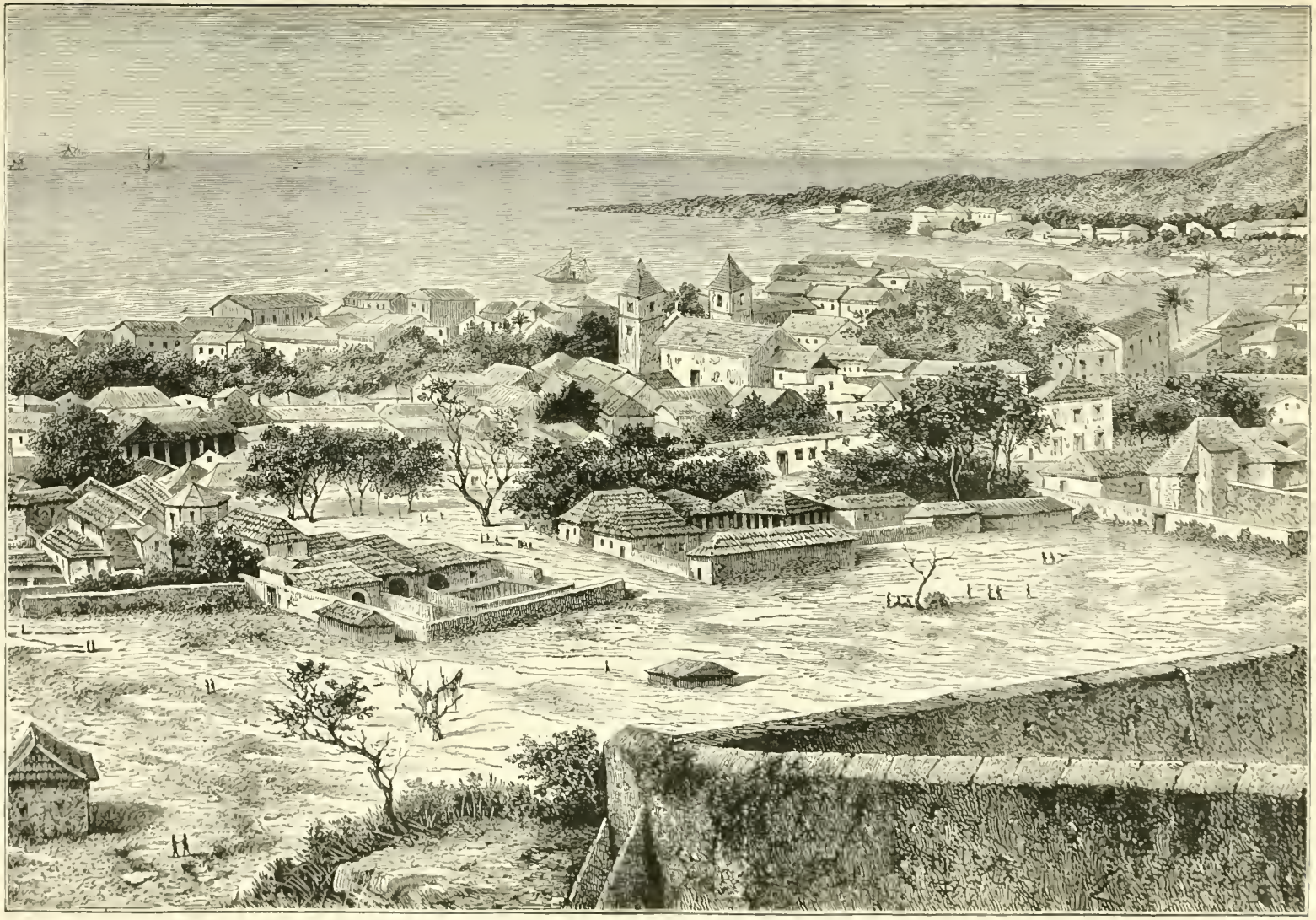
* De Tovar: "Mission Evangelica al Regno de Congo" (1649); "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., p. 167-169.

† Monteiro: "Angola and the River Congo" (1875); and in addition to the other authors indicated: Hunt: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1858); Behm: Petermann's *Geographische Mittheilungen* (1872); Grandy: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1874); and Dyer: "West Coast of Africa" (1878).

its advancing. The officials have looked on their tenure of office simply as a licence to extort taxes from the natives, and to plunder as best they could; while the home authorities, by under-paying their officers, and in many cases sending out those whose character and antecedents ought to have precluded the idea of entrusting them with responsible positions, have aided and abetted this system, or want of system. In early times the slave trade was a staple "industry" of the coast; and though we may reasonably believe that it is now extinct, it would require even more pamphlets and speeches more eloquent than have been devoted to the denial to believe that the English travellers—like Cameron—who assert that within very recent times a little commerce in "black ivory" was still going on under the eyes of the Portuguese Governors, were stating a deliberate untruth. There are, as in the rest of West Africa, no native places deserving the name of town, though the name is usually applied to the collection of a few hundred native huts, which forms the capital of the various petty chiefs. At one time the inhabitants must have been more numerous. San Salvador,* or Congo Grande, which was the metropolis of the Jesuits and of the old Congo "Empire," was, indeed, said to contain during its palmy days 50,000 people. But allowing this to be a gross exaggeration, there cannot be a doubt that the Angola country has been fearfully thinned by war, the slave-trade, and by epidemics of one kind or another. The Portuguese factories are, however, in modern times the most important centres. San Paõlo de Loanda,† sometimes called the metropolis of West Africa, is a pleasant European-looking town, built on a fine bay. The houses are large, roofed with tiles, and with cool verandahs, which admit the sea breezes. The harbour bustles with shipping, and the streets present an unwonted stir to those acquainted with the sleepy appearance of the settlements north of the Cape and south of the civilised States of Northern Africa. San Paõlo da Assumpção de Loanda is indeed, for West Africa, an old town, which in the course of its existence has undergone several ups and downs. First built by the Portuguese, it was captured by the Dutch during the era of their palmy rule on the coast, but again retaken by its original masters, in whose hands it still continues. The colonists have aimed to make it a little Lisbon. But it is difficult to make anything African European, and Loanda consequently remains—Loanda. It has churches in abundance, for the Iberians have ever been an eminently religious race. It has fine buildings for the transaction of public business as befits the metropolis of a colony, but they are, as Mr. Reade remarks with rude truthfulness, "like prepared dowagers—seen to most advantage from a distance." As in every town of Spanish or Portuguese origin, there is a profusion of whitewash, the glaring appearance of which becomes monotonous, while outside the town the dark thatched huts of the natives show how far the outposts of barbarism have been driven in the course of three centuries. Indeed, in spite of spasmodic efforts of the Government, Loanda, like every other settlement of ancient date on the West Coast of Africa, has been decaying since the stoppage of the lucrative slave-trade. Originally the place wherein the West Africans obtained a great portion of the cowrie-shells which to this day form the chief currency of the coast, Loanda Harbour long bore the reputation of being the best port on this side of the continent; but of

* For a recent account see Comber: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1881), p. 20.

† See Illustration on p. 141, and in "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., p. 169.



VIEW OF THE ROADSTEAD AND TOWN OF SAN PAÕLO DE LOANDA, WEST AFRICA.

late years it has been fast shoaling up with sand, and requires constant dredging to keep it open. The town has also a faded appearance, and in parts is so decidedly ruinous that it is difficult to recognise in it the city of which Father Cavazzi gave such a florid account in the year 1667. In those days the churches, cathedral, colleges, hospitals, and convents of the Jesuits gave it an importance it has lost since the order fell. The ecclesiastical buildings have fallen into neglect, and though for a time the slave-trade gave Angola a hectic prosperity, the discovery of the Brazils irretrievably damaged it, for the tide of commerce and immigration which used to flow in its direction now turned towards the richer west. Benguela, also at one time a great slave port, is in a similar condition. Mossamedes is a "pretty town," but this is the most that can be said for it; while Ambriz, the most northern of the Angolan ports, has long been in a state of utter decrepitude. The Portuguese claim to have authority as far inland as Ulunda, 350 miles from the coast. In reality, their power scarcely extends beyond the range of their guns, the large interior negro kingdoms, like Ulunda, doing what seems good in their own eyes, without at all consulting the whites. Their traders—mostly half-breeds—however, extend their operations far into the interior; and their explorers, like the Pombeiros, Monteiro, Gametto, and Lacerda in former times, and Serpa Pinta within the last three years, have done more to extend the reputation of their country in West Africa by their trans-continental travels, than their military and civil authorities have done during the three centuries of their hold on the coast settlements. In Guinea (Senegambia, Bissao, Cacheo, Bolama, &c.) the population is roughly estimated at 9,282. In Prince's Island, St. Thomas, and Ajuda there are less than 26,000, and in Angola the last census given puts the population at 2,000,000.* In Spanish West Africa the population is estimated at 35,000—black, white, and mixed.

CHAPTER VIII.

Africa: The Kaffir Country and the British Colonies.

Still keeping southward along the west coast, we gradually find that we have entered into a region widely different from that which until recently we have been visiting further north. No longer is the country damp and swampy; luxuriant forest growth covers no part of it; and instead of the great rivers which, like the Niger and the Congo and their tributaries, intersected the dense feverish jungle, we find a few muddy rivers, half empty during the hot season, or "spruits," which run intermittingly, or are dry in the intervals between the rains. The physical features of much of the region approximate more to the extreme north than to tropical Africa, but in few other respects is it the same. Plants, animals, people—all are different. The Berber, the Arab,

* Pery: "Geographia e Estadistica geral de Portugal e Colonias" (1875); *Almanach de Gotha* (1881), p. 877; "The Lands of Cazembe" (*Royal Geographical Society*, 1873).

or the Turk are no longer seen, or ever known by tradition, for we have reached a region where the Mohammedan conquerors have never penetrated. The negroes, with their low foreheads, flat noses, thick lips, projecting lower jaws, and intensely curly hair, are about equally strange. We are among a dark, an almost black people, whose features show that at one time they had intermarried with a negro race. But their bright intelligence and general appearance bespeak an origin not akin to that of the brutalised aborigines of the Niger and "the Bights." Mingled among them are other races, to whom they are aliens. These are the Hottentots and the Bushmen, the latter, most probably, the original inhabitants of the country. But South Africa is essentially the land of the Kaffirs, a fine race, divided up into many tribes and even nationalities, but ethnologically one and the same people, variously modified by long isolation or by amalgamation with the aborigines, whom they ousted or settled down amongst. Again the conquerors have met with their conquerors; for, while the Kaffirs took possession of some other people's country, the British, partly as the original colonisers, and partly as successors to the Dutch, have occupied the southern part of Africa, known as the Cape Colony, spread into the interior, where they have lately become masters of the Dutch Republic of the Transvaal, and up to the east coast, where there is established the colony of Natal. In addition to the British possessions, there is the Orange River Republic, an independent commonwealth of Dutchmen, who were the original colonists of the Cape of Good Hope. Finally, in South Africa—giving that term a liberal acceptation—there are immense tracts of country, still in the possession of the original native tribes, either nominally or actually independent. As a matter of fact, however, the freest of these nationalities only enjoys a quasi-sovereignty. The British Government, for their own safety, insist in controlling their affairs and policy, a course which, as in the case of the Zulus of Zululand, the Basutos of Basutoland, and the Kaffirs generally, in five different years has resulted in wars more or less serious. In brief, we have stretched, or have been compelled to stretch, our authority, until at the present time the British arm may be said to be more or less powerful from Cape Frio, where the Portuguese possessions on the West Coast terminate, to the Limpopo River and Delagoa Bay on the east, where the Portuguese colonies again begin. Until 1880 Namaqua and Damara Land were nominally independent; but they too have been absorbed into the corporation of Great Britain in South Africa, until the Orange River Republic is the only portion of South Africa which can be said to have a recognised independence. Even Zululand, which, prior to the war of 1878-79, was more free from the white interference than any other part of the country, is now little better than a collection of suffragan chieftainships, under rulers nominated by the English. Altogether, British South Africa, excluding Zululand, Tongas, and Swazis, may be considered as comprising an area of 546,000 square miles, and containing a population, black, brown, and white, of about 1,890,000.

Namaqua and Damara Lands: The Kalahari Desert, etc.

Namaqua and Damara Lands constitute the proper home of the Namaqua Hottentots and the Damara Kaffirs, and is that hilly country, dry and barren, which stretches down

the coast from Angola to the border of the Cape Colony. The soil is poor, and covered with a sparse vegetation of grasses and prickly shrubs peculiar to such a parched region. The water-courses only flow for a brief period, and the coast is usually enveloped in a haze. Copper abounds in Damara Land, ostriches course over it in abundance, and the natives manage to pasture on its scanty herbage numerous herds of cattle, which they value above every other possession. Hence the name of "Cattle Damaras,"

WASHING SAND FOR DIAMONDS ON THE BANKS OF THE VAAL RIVER.

by which they are generally known. They are believed to have originally migrated from the Zambesi, while the Houquain, the other inhabitants of the region, are considered to have been a negro race, who had adopted the Hottentot language prior to the period when they were enslaved by the Damaras. Griquas and Bushmen have also penetrated this region. But the Europeans are few in number, and chiefly missionaries, the country being penetrable by only a few tracks from the coast, which is not often visited, either by the guano ships which at one period used to frequent Angra Pequena Bay, or by Walvisch Bay, which, as the name indicated, was a haunt of the whale fishers

in former times. From both of these points there are routes leading to the stations of the Rhenish, Finnish, and Roman Catholic missionaries. The country is also believed to be auriferous; and if, in addition, it is found to be "diamondiferous," it will be tenanted, for a time at least, by the whites, be the owner of the soil willing or unwilling, a not unimportant point, in regard to which, most probably, they have yet to assert an opinion. The Dutch Boers, or farmers, have at different times "trekked" thither, but the land being almost rainless, even these hardy pioneers have not found it a comfortable abiding place. Little Namaqua Land, south of the Orange River, is, however, a more favourable

A BULLOCK WAGGON ON ITS WAY TO THE DIAMOND FIELDS.

region, and here there are a few settlers, who endeavour under the most adverse circumstances to obtain crops, and a copper-mining company, who are more fortunate in the results of their industry. Mr. Theal, the historian of South Africa, describes the country as a "long narrow belt, twenty thousand square miles in extent," presenting nothing to the eye but a "dismal succession of hill and gorge and sandy plain, all bare and desolated—a land of drought and famine, of blinding glare and fiery blast: such is the country of the Little Namaquas. From time immemorial it has been the home of a few wretched Hottentots, who were almost safe in such a desert from European intruders. Half-a-dozen missionaries and two or three score of farmers were the sole representatives of civilisation among these wandering savages. One individual to about three square miles was all that the land was capable of supporting." For more than

two centuries copper has been known to exist in this region, but it was not until 1863 that the metal was extracted with success, and exported from the Ookiep mine to Port Nolloth, or Rotten Bay, a locality destitute of almost everything which makes a country habitable. The Korannas, or Little Namaquas, are a low form of humanity, and likely before long to be exterminated. But the copper remains, and seems destined to give the country a prosperity of which it seems at first sight so singularly incapable.

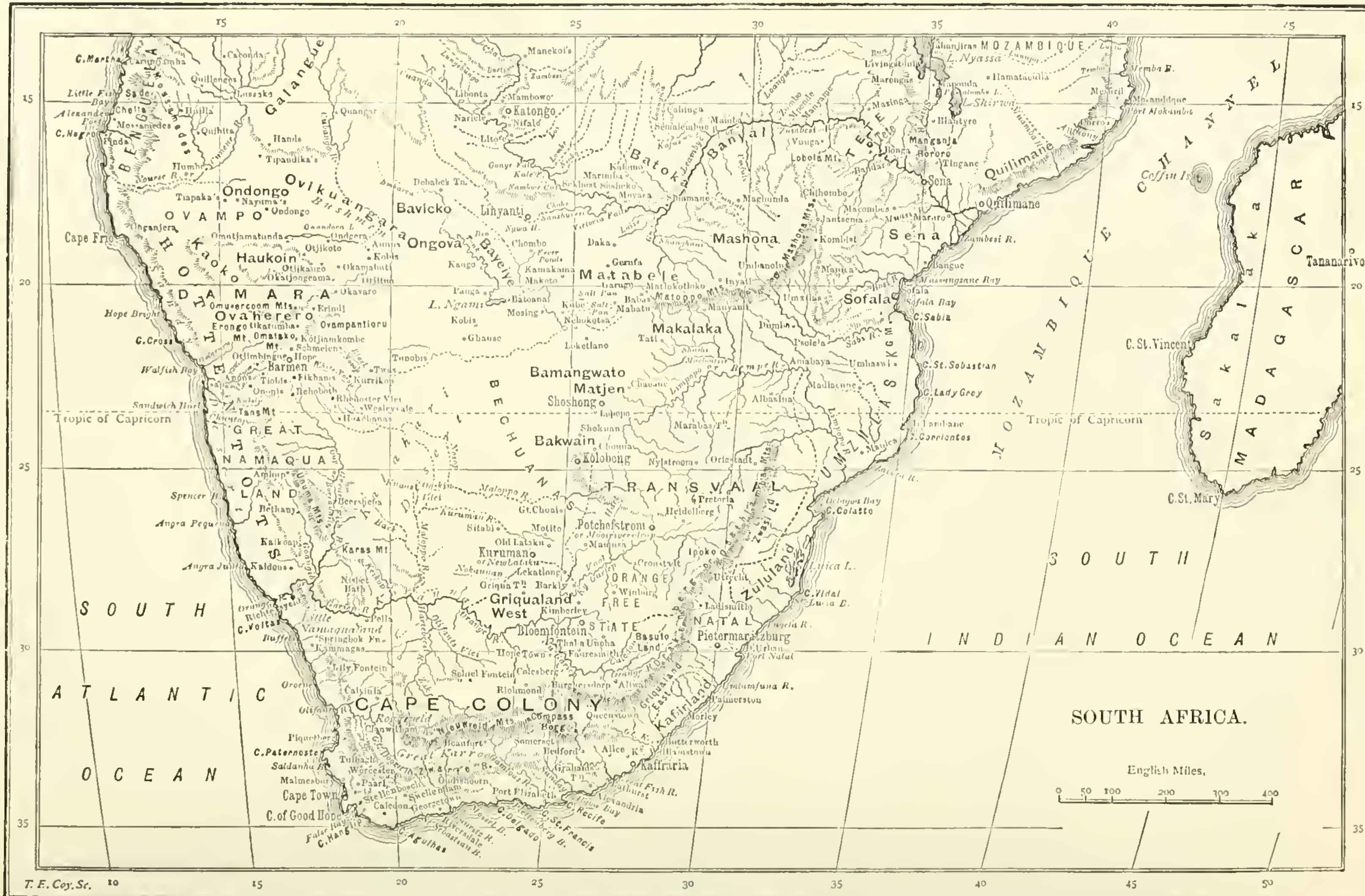
North of Damara Land is a fertile country, occupied by tribes akin to the Damaras, and known as the Ovampos,* and inland from it lies the dreary Kalahari Desert, of which Livingstone gives such a graphic description. It is, perhaps, the driest part of South Africa—the Sahara, indeed, of the region south of the equator; and having no running water, and experiencing scarcely any rainfall, it is a desert, in which the only vegetation that can exist consists of a few tufts of grass or some bulbous plants, which the Bushmen search for, knowing that they contain a refreshing supply of water. A few antelopes roam over it, and are killed by the nomadic savages, who lie in wait for them with poisoned arrows beside the widely scattered watering-places. There is no attempt at cultivation in all this waste.

Immediately south of the Kalahari is the arid region known as the Diamond Fields, or Griqualand West, which was formerly governed as a separate colony, but is now one of the provinces administered by the Cape of Good Hope. Bounded on the south by the Orange River, which separates it from the colony of which it forms a political part, it is itself intersected by the Vaal River (p. 144), a sandy stream, which in a wetter country would be of comparatively little importance. This region has extensive tracts fit for grazing, and a few valleys suited for agriculture, and is likely in time to be proved rich in copper, lead, and iron. But at present the Diamond Fields owe their sole interest to the gems from which they have received their popular name. Though stones had been picked up for several years often without the finders being aware of their nature, it was only in July, 1871, that the first diamonds in this locality were discovered under the root of an old thorn-tree on the now famous Kolesberg Kopje, or mound at Kimberley, which since that date has been tunnelled and honeycombed in every direction by the excavations of the diamond seekers. The precious gems are sought for in the earth, and on the banks of the Vaal River, the water of which is used to wash them from their clayey matrix. But back from the river the dry diggings consist of pits sunk through the decomposed volcanic rocks, until the tufaceous limestone and clay among which the gems are found are reached. This "stuff" is then carried to the river and washed, or more frequently is dried and sifted by the digger, aided by his Kaffir workmen, who, however, if not sharply looked after, steal more stones than they acknowledge having found. Hence unlicensed dealing in diamonds or purchasing diamonds from natives is a severe offence in Griqualand West, though, in spite of all precautions, the crime is rife, as the profits are great. Altogether, it is believed that over £20,000,000 worth of diamonds have been exported from these diamond fields since their discovery in

* *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1880), p. 628.

1867, and that about £2,000,000 worth are still unearthed annually. In the interval, the country, from being roamed over solely by a few thousand Griqua Kaffirs, has become peopled in spots by about 13,000 whites and over 33,000 blacks, belonging to all parts of South Africa, the profitable labour of diamond seeking having attracted thousands to Kimberley, Bultfontein, and Du Toit's Pan, which have now attained the importance of considerable towns. Up to 1871, Griqualand West, if it was owned by any civilised power, was part of the Orange River Republic, a claim which we have acknowledged by paying the Dutchmen £90,000 compensation for its loss. Its area, so far as defined, is about 16,630 square miles, or more than half the size of Scotland. But the country, though it may be rich, is not pretty. Indeed, a dryer, uglier, drearier, more depressing region than the Diamond Fields it would be impossible to look on, especially after no rain has fallen for some months, and the thermometer has day after day been going steadily up to 90° in the shade. About Kimberley (Plate LV.) especially, the dryness and dreariness attain a maximum. When Mr. Trollope visited the place there was not a blade of grass on the ground, and he "seemed to breathe dust rather than air." The great novelist was not impressed with the metropolis of the Diamond Fields. "An atmosphere composed of flies and dust cannot be pleasant—of dust so thick that the sufferer fears to remove it lest the raising of it may aggravate the evil, and of flies so numerous that one hardly dares to slaughter them by the ordinary means lest their dead bodies should be noisome. When a gust of wind would bring the dust in a cloud, hiding everything, a cloud so thick that it seemed that the solid surface of the earth had risen diluted into the air, and when flies had rendered occupation altogether impossible, I could be told, when complaining, that I ought to be there in December or February — at some other time of the year than that then present—if I really wanted to see what flies and dust could do. I sometimes thought that the people of Kimberley were proud of their flies and their dust."

Meat is dear and bad, butter worse, and vegetables rarities, which even yet can only be supplied at great cost, owing to the fact that everything in Kimberley has to be carried up from the coast, five hundred miles away from the Orange River Republic, or the more favoured parts of the Cape Colony, in ox waggons, a slow, sure, but prodigiously costly mode of transport. Hence, when sugar is quoted at half-a-crown a pound, the two shillings must be considered the tax paid to the long road and to the flies and dust which make shopkeeping in Kimberley not much more agreeable than diamond-seeking, but perhaps, in the end, a more certain mode of making a fortune, though possibly, under favourable circumstances, not so quick as picking it out of the ground. A tree is even more rare than a blade of grass, and altogether the province is extremely dry and extremely unbeautiful. Along the banks of the Orange and Vaal Rivers there are, however, some verdure and a good deal of stunted forest, which add an indescribably pleasing appearance to the picturesque banks of their streams. The height of the country above the sea—3,000 feet to 4,000 feet—makes the climate during the coldest season of the year reasonably cool and healthy. The winters are said to be often bracing, though the summers are hot, and, as we have seen, extremely dusty, unless when an occasional thunder-shower turns the powdered earth into a



MAP OF SOUTH AFRICA.

temporary clay. Many of the old mines are beginning to be exhausted, though there is every likelihood of others being discovered. Meantime, the population is becoming more settled. Houses of brick and stone are taking the place of the old canvas and wooden "shanties;" and if the country continue prosperous—that is to say, if the supply of diamonds do not cease altogether—Griqualand will be penetrated by a railway, and as soon as water can be brought abundantly into the town from the Vaal River, the dust and fly nuisances will be mitigated, while irrigation will make the country green with orchards and fields of vegetables. Then the Kimberley, De Beer, Du Toit's Pan, and Bultfontein, Barkly, and Griqua Town of the past will only be remembered as stepping-stones in the history of the revolutionised province.*

The Cape Colony.

Excluding Griqualand West, which has been so recently received into the fold that it is hardly yet considered a member of the Cape family of provinces, the old colony known under this name occupies the most southern part of the African continent, bordered on either side by the Atlantic and Indian Oceans. It covers an area nearly four times as large as England, and includes, at the date of the census of 1875, nearly 721,000 people, of whom less than 237,000 were whites, the remainder being Kaffirs of various tribes, Hottentots, Bushmen, Malays, and others. Colonised as early as 1652 by the Dutch, the country, though in a much more circumscribed form than at present, passed finally into the hands of the English in 1815, though in its laws, customs, form of faith, names of places, and in the tongue understood, if not spoken, by a large portion of the population, the Cape of Good Hope is still to a great extent Dutch.

The physical geography of the country is curious. Intersected by numerous rivers, the Cape is still a dry country, for none of these rivers are navigable, and the rainfall over a great extent of the colony is scant and fitful. The climate of the country is, however, as a rule, temperate. In most of the hot valleys during the summer—and the reader must remember that the Cape summers are our winters—the temperature is oven-like; but on the higher grounds the ordinary heat of the warmest months does not exceed that of Italy, while in winter the thermometer frequently falls below freezing-point, when the atmosphere is clear, buoyant, and bracing. Local fevers are unknown, and epidemics generally, due to the climate, are not among the miseries from which the colonists suffer. On the east coast and in the extreme south abundance of rain falls, Natal being peculiarly favoured in this respect; but in the interior there is less, and in the vicinity of the Orange River the showers are few and slight, while towards the mouth of that river there are said to be many years during which no rain whatever falls. Mr. Johnston notes the curious fact that while over the south-western maritime region the rain is brought by the westerly winds which prevail in winter (that from April to October), the easterly sea-board has, on the contrary, its rains in the summer

* Trollope: "South Africa" (1878); Boyle: "The Savage Life" (1876); Payton: "The Diamond Diggings of South Africa" (1872); "Scribner's Monthly" (September, 1878); Dunn: "Notes on the Diamond Fields" (1871); etc. etc.

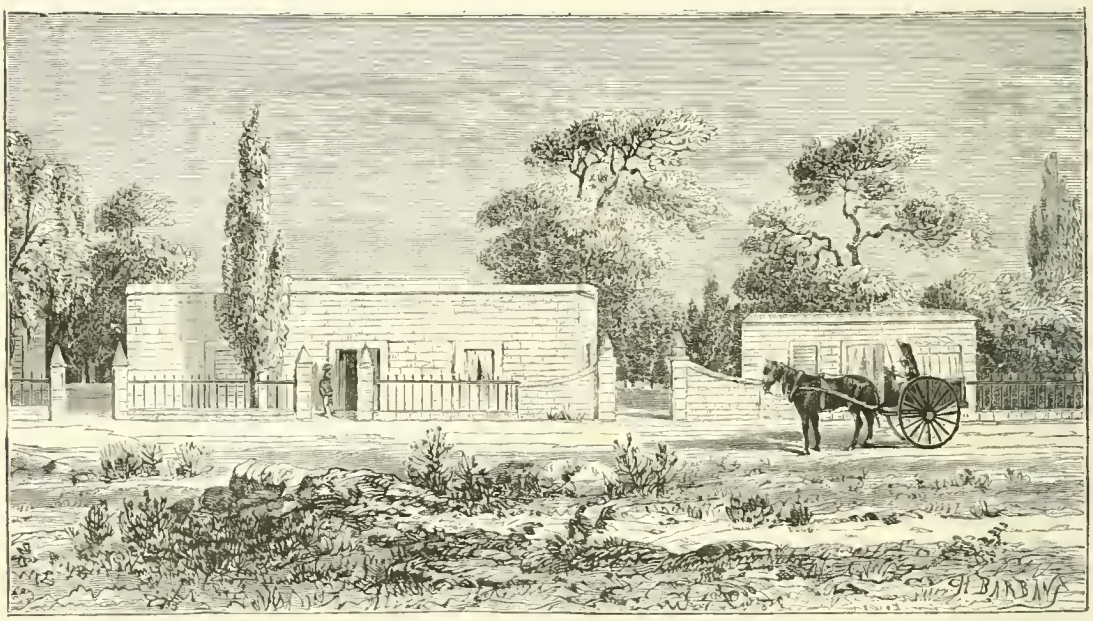
(September to April). On the highest ranges snow lies for three or four months, and in the inland region the country is frequently visited by thunderstorms, accompanied by brief but heavy downpours of rain. The country from the south northward rises in a series of terraces until it culminates in the Spitz Kop, or Compass Mountain, 8,500 feet above the sea, from which point it gradually slopes to the Orange River. The outer edge of these terraces are in most cases mountain ranges running in an east to west direction, or "parallel to the coast and to each other," and are known under a variety of names, with which it is not necessary to encumber these pages. The outer or maritime slopes of these ridges are the best parts of the colony, and the most thickly inhabited. Here are found the chief towns and villages, and the fields of grain, vineyards, orchards, and tobacco plantation, for which the country has gained a just celebrity. The passage from one terrace to another is through the familiar "Kloofs," or narrow mountain gorges. The great pastoral district of the colony is the extensive undulating plains beyond Zwartebergen, or the Black Mountain, known as the Great Karroo. During the summer months this region is dry and dreary. There is little or no running water, and the pools are only full after a thunderstorm; the beds of the brooks then run for a brief period, but they soon dry up, and a scanty supply of brackish water can, until the rains come, only be obtained by digging deep in their beds. There are no trees and few shrubs, but as soon as the wet season arrives the Great Karroo is covered with grass and flowers, and the sheep for a few weeks luxuriate in a paradise of herbage, which clothes "veld" and "vlei" alike. Looking at the garden of flowers which the Karroo is at this season, one might well doubt the accuracy of those who, visiting it only a few days earlier, describe the bare, brown, barren waste which it is at that date. On the coast snow does not often fall, and then only remains for a short time. Table Mountain (3,582 feet high), so prominent an object from Cape Town, is sometimes sprinkled with white, but before the townspeople have had time to wonder at the spectacle it is again bare of the unwonted covering. Altogether, contrary to the common impression which has somehow or other gained ground, the Cape Colony is by no means a flat or undulating country. It is in reality one of the wildest, most picturesque, and even mountainous regions, which the Britons have elected to people. High uplands and great elevated plains are interspersed among bold mountain ridges and escarpments, among which, through savage gorges, the drainage finds its way to the Indian or Atlantic Oceans, or north to the Orange River, to be finally discharged on the dry north-western coast. Within the limits of the country longest settled there is a concentration of some of the most picturesque scenery in the world. Certainly nowhere else in the colony is there such an alternation of hill and valley, bare plain and well-clothed woodland.

The rivers of the Cape Colony vary in extent. The Orange River is the largest, but is so broken up by cataracts as to be useless for navigation, while the same may be said of most of the other rivers of the Cape. A few of them can be sailed up for a short distance, but for a distance so short that they are quite inapplicable for purposes of travel or transit. The Olifant, falling into the Atlantic, overflows its bed

during the rainy season, depositing on the neighbouring country a rich sediment, in which great crops of grain are grown. The appearance of the country—and this description applies to all the region of South Africa—is, as a rule, dry. During the rains orchids and various bulbous plants cover the ground with a gay carpet, and the numerous species of heath for which the Cape is remarkable give a beautiful appearance to limited patches of territory. Thorny shrubs are, however, the objects which more particularly strike the eye—or the skin of the traveller—mingled with cactus-looking plants, so characteristic of a climate in which vegetation must economise the moisture which it obtains during the rainy weather in order to subsist during the long weeks or months of drought. Wheat is grown in the richer districts, and with maize, oats, barley, and millet, or Kaffir corn, are common crops. Rye is reared in the Roggeveld and in the lower hills of Namaqua Land, and in the inundated districts of Olifant River rice grows well. Tobacco is a widely-spread crop, and cotton has been introduced experimentally. The making of wine and brandy is now a flourishing industry, and but as yet the produce does not obtain much popularity in Britain, the grapes are affirmed to be of the finest quality. The Cape is still to some extent a hunting-ground, but the vast number of wild animals which once roamed over it are now so greatly thinned off, that the mighty Nimrods, who used to find within its bounds herds of antelopes, elands, koodoo, gnu, hartbeests, quaggas, blaauboks, and steinboks, with lions, giraffes, rhinoceroses, leopards, hyænas, and jackals, require now to go far north of the Orange River if they are to expect much sport from any other animals save the two last. Ostriches, once common, are now few, and the wild bird's feathers are at the present day chiefly obtained from without the borders of the colony, or from tame birds kept in enclosures, and reared from eggs artificially hatched. This business has of late years become a flourishing one in experienced hands, though it is an extremely risky venture for a tyro, or even in certain seasons for those who have been trained to it,* though the feathers are worth from £5 to £50 per lb., in spite of the admirable imitations which are now made out of whalebone. Venomous snakes are common, but insect pests are not nearly so numerous in the part of Africa further to the north. But though the neighbouring sea abounds in fishes, the rivers and tiny lakes of the colony are singularly deficient in food supplies of this description. Sheep, cattle, and dogs have been possessed by the natives from an early date: at all events, they had them when the country was first discovered. They are, however, of a wretched type when not improved by admixture with the finer breeds introduced since the wild animals have been displaced. Wool now forms one of the staple exports of the colony, and throughout the country there are estimated to be fully 15,000,000 of sheep. Many of them are of the Merino breed, which are rapidly taking the place of the big-tailed sheep affected by the early Dutch settlers. The Angora goat is also extensively kept for the sake of its hair, and cattle, including all the finer varieties suited to the climate, are found in every part of this rising and flourishing colony. No sight is more common in the Cape than the long lines of waggons, drawn by six, eight, or ten team of oxen (p. 145), lumbering slowly over the roads, and subsisting on the scanty

* Mosenthal and Harting: "Ostriches and Ostrich Farming" (1876); Cooke: "Hints on Ostrich Farming" (1880).

herbage which they pick up on the way. Coaches, and, in the more settled districts, railways, are common. But the "Cape waggon," with its bovine accompaniments, its "vorelouper," of aboriginal extraction, and its "out-spanning" and "in-spanning," will still be for many years to come the most characteristic of the South African modes of travel and transit. The colony is governed by two houses of legislature and a responsible ministry, only the executive head of the State being sent out from England. There are still many Kaffirs living within the bounds of the settled districts, numbers of Malays, and also a few negroes, descendants of slaves introduced in earlier times from Mozambique. The Hottentots are also numerous, but the Bushmen, except in the Kalahari Desert, are almost non-existent; and of all these aborigines few can be characterised as pure savages. Many of



HOUSE OF A RICH BOER, OR DUTCH FARMER.

them are, indeed, partially civilised, and living in a state of comparative respectability as labourers for the white settlers.

"The Cape" has long since ceased to have, except in the out-of-the-way districts to which settlers have only newly "trekked," that appearance of unkemptedness—politically, physically, and socially—which so many of our colonies and the newer districts in the United States display, for the older parts of South Africa are getting to be venerable outliers of Britain, albeit, nearly equal to France in size, and nearly double the old kingdom of Prussia. There are districts in the western part of the colony where the Dutch language is still dominant, but in the east the English are the most numerous race. There are Germans, French, and Portuguese in smaller numbers; and of the newspapers, about one-sixth are in the Netherlandish tongue. The Dutch "Boer" is, in the Cape, a loyal enough subject, despite his entertaining a sentimental regard for Holland—though hardly the Holland of this day—and but little regard for the English, though in no way inclined to

change his allegiance. Those who were most evil disposed in the old days "trekked" north over the Orange River into the Orange Free State, which still exists, or into Natal, now a colony, and the Transvaal region which was annexed by us in 1877, but has not yet settled down comfortably in its new bonds. The River is, however, rather looked down upon by the other settlers, and nothing is more common than to hear Cape colonists talking of some acquaintance as having made a *mesalliance* by marrying a Dutchman or a Dutch girl. The Boer's habits are certainly a little primitive, and often a trifle dirty. His house is, anywhere outside the settled districts, painfully primitive (pp. 152, 153), and his ideas on many things so different from ours, that it is difficult for the two races to thoroughly amalgamate. Of the forty-eight districts, that in the vicinity of Cape

A BOER FARM.

Town is naturally the most advanced. Cape Town is, indeed, a flourishing city of 45,000 inhabitants, with fine buildings and pretty villas, gas, tramways, and railways pouring into it the agricultural wealth of the surrounding country, and with little—except the Dutch-talking Boers who have come to town for marketing or a holiday—to remind the visitor that he is in a colonial capital, founded, and for long solely inhabited, by adventurers from the shores of the Zuider Zee. Yet, in many respects Cape Town is unlike anything seen in Europe. No two houses are of the same size and architecture, and the finest shops and other erections alternate with the poorest shanties of galvanised iron, or the shed-like shop of a greengrocer is side by side with the almost palatial building which shelters the display of a wealthy jeweller. Kaffirs clothed in the rags of a uniform; Chinamen in their clean blue frocks; lanky Boers in brown velveteens, with their "vrows" in black gowns, with thick black veils and huge poke bonnets; merchants in grey silk coats and white hats; officers in uniform or in mufti; Parsee

washerwomen; Moslem Malays, 10,817 of whom are natives of the country, though the descendants of men originally brought from the Dutch East Indies, all pass the hotel door in a few minutes. Hansoms and two-horse broughams ply for hire; and in the hotels accommodation can be obtained equal to anything found in towns of the same size in Europe or America. Mosquitoes are, however, a sad pest; and the heat of the streets, except during a few months in the year, is trying to fresh arrivals or even to old residents. The high winds bring clouds of dust, irritating to the lungs, and the insufficient sanitary arrangements are evidenced by the odorous vapours which steal over the town during the nights.* Cape Town is the starting-point for two lines of railway. The one line runs to Worcester, and is to be extended across the Karroo; the other terminates at Wynberg, the centre of the Contantia wine district. Port Elizabeth, on Algoa Bay, is the place from which most of the wool of the colony is shipped, and is also the terminus of a railway running into the interior to Grahamstown and Graaf Reinet; while the commerce which collects in King William's Town finds an outlet in East London, which may be regarded as the harbour of British Kaffraria, or at least of the fertile territory once known under that name. The cultivators around King William's Town are chiefly Germans, who have a great belief in the future of East London, just as Grahamstown has in Port Alfred. The harbour is not, however, by nature a good one. It is blocked by an awkward bar, which lies across the mouth of the Buffalo River, and the sweep of the sea on it often cuts off all communication with the merchants and their ships. But with the aid of engineering skill, the East Londoners believe that eventually their harbour will be the rendezvous of the commerce which at present does not take kindly to it and to its bar.† In 1878-79 the revenue of the colony (not including loans) was £2,067,889, and its expenditure £2,053,182, while its public debt is put down at £9,527,459.

Kaffirland, etc.

We hear repeatedly of "troubles at the Cape," but in reality the troubles are in the country east of that colony, in the region appropriated to the semi-independent tribes of Kaffirs, who, to the number of over 500,000, are collected in a region vaguely known as Kaffraria, in area about twice the size of Greece, or the same size as Natal, or half the size of the Orange Free State. The Kei River bounds this territory on the south; hence it is often known as the Transkei. It is a fertile and well-watered country, wooded on the higher parts, and with great tracts well adapted either for agriculture or for grazing, both of which branches of a rural life are adopted by the native tribes, who live here in a state of semi-independence, though in reality under residents, whose authority is exercised through the chiefs. That this authority is not always implicitly obeyed is proved by the rising of the Basutos in 1880, aided by the Pondomosi and Tembus, and sympathised in, if not shared, by the Pondos and other tribes. The tribes inhabiting this district are the Fingos, numbering 73,000 people, and with the mixed inhabitants of the Idutywa

* Sandeman: "Eight Months in an Ox Waggon" (1880), p. 9.

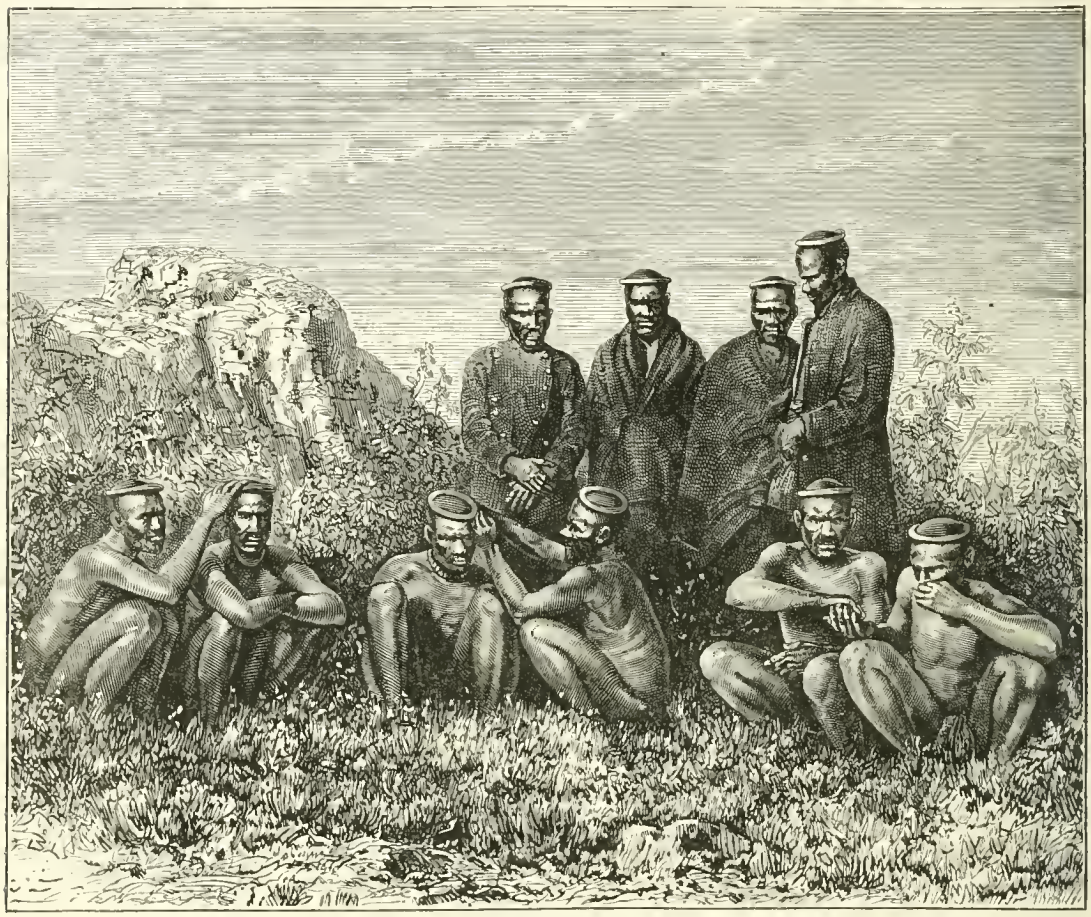
† Silver's "Handbook to South Africa" (1880); Hall: "South African Geography" (1866); Noble: "Description of the Cape Colony" (1870); Wilmot: "Description of the Cape Colony" (1863), etc. etc.

Reserve, to the number of 17,000, are British subjects. The Tembus are not so nominally, but formerly their 100,000 people were obedient to the British magistrates who resided amongst them. The Pondomosi, numbering 12,000, live in the upper basin of the pretty St. John's River, and the Pondos, who are over 200,000 in number, in the lower part of the same river, and on the immediate coast. Griqualand East, or Adam Kok's Land, sometimes called No Man's Land, near Natal, is inhabited by Griquas, including Bacas, to the number of 40,000, The Galekas, to the number of 66,000, inhabit a part of country not incorporated in the Cape Colony. The inhabitants of the Gatberg—including "Bastards" and Basutos, to the number of 6,000—live under the control of a British magistrate, not because it is their country, but simply because it happens to be vacant. The Bomvanas are a sub-tribe of Galekas, living near the coast. The Pondos, who are the most numerous of all these tribes, have for long remained tolerably friendly to the Cape authorities, under whose control they now are.

The Basutos are the South African race who of late have been bulking most largely in public notice. Their country is the region of mountains and valleys which surround the source of the Orange River. In 1868 it was declared to be British territory, and in 1871 was annexed to the Cape Colony. The natives who are under this name are a branch of the Beehuanas, a race of widely-spread connection, whose territory lies west of the Transvaal, not far from the borders of the Kalahari Desert. In physical prowess and warlike reputation they are inferior to many of the other South African races, but in intelligence and capabilities for civilisation they are superior to most of them. Basutoland is one of the best agricultural regions in all South Africa, and though 127,000 of them are believed to be settled in this region, the Basutos are not confined to this, for in the course of the last forty or fifty years they have been moved up and down South Africa. Their present country has been acquired, partly by conquest and partly by colonisation, the ancestors of the present inhabitants having fled to it after being worsted elsewhere. Their great chief, forty years ago, was Moshesh, and under his guidance their name was more dreaded in the country than it has been subsequently. But until latterly the Basutos had settled down to the arts of peace; they had more ploughs than any native tribe; they grew corn and wool, traded and acquired money, and were considered amongst the most loyal of English subjects, both in peace and war, albeit their military capacity was regarded lightly. But in 1880, owing to the enforcement of the Disarming Act, a great part of the natives went into arms against us, and at this date (1881) are still maintaining their struggle. The result cannot be doubtful; but, meantime, the cost of their subjection will be great, and the immediate loss to the Cape Treasury considerable, for their hut tax yielded, at 10s. a hut, some £4,000 per annum to the Colonial Exchequer, and in other direct taxes they contributed £2,000 according to the returns. Altogether, the revenue of Basutoland was given in 1880 at £33,965, and the expenditure at £29,277.

In these few notes on the South African tribes—for which we have been indebted to Mr. Trollope, Sir Bartle Frere, and other writers, who have gone more fully into the question than it is possible for us in the few lines to which our remarks must be limited—no attempt has been made to disentangle the knotted history of the native tribes. The

native question is, indeed, one on which it is impossible to pronounce any decided views, founded on the most authoritative sources of information, without having them just as positively contradicted by some other "authority," who claims equal knowledge and superior acumen. We may, therefore, conclude that the subject is by no means a clear one, and that the "native question" having, to use a familiar phrase, "got into politics," the "facts" are manipulated to suit rival "views." The nomenclature of the different tribes is



ZULUS.

also very puzzling; and here again the "authorities" are equally at issue with each other. One set of purists affect to be particular as to what a Kaffir is, while another class—and perhaps more accurately — the bulk of the South African tribes under that head. The Natal colonists stoutly contend that the Zulus and Kaffirs are different races, while others will as dogmatically deny the Pondos being entitled to that designation. Politically, these hair-splitting differences are of very little consequence, and ethnologically are probably inaccurate. In familiar language, all the South African aborigines—Bushmen and Hottentots excepted—are Kaffirs; and two of their tribes, the Gaikas and

Galekas, have in time past given us an infinitude of trouble, though the former are now quiet British subjects, such as were the Basutos until latterly, and such as are the Fingos still, but never without a suspicion of rebellious intentions being cherished by them. But it would be unsatisfactory to go into these histories within our space, and wearisome to do so at still greater length.*

There are, however, Kaffir countries besides those whose area is confined to the

A SOUTH AFRICAN CATTLE KRAAL.

region known as Kaffraria, and a few words may be fittingly devoted to them in this place. Of these, the most important is Zululand, which, under the military system of a succession of warrior chiefs, rapidly extended its bounds, until it stretched from the Limpopo to the confines of the Cape Colony. At present, its confines are more

* In the works already quoted, full information on this subject may be obtained. A briefer but very pleasant account may be found in Mr. Trollope's "South Africa" (1878), and Aylward's "Transvaal of To-day" (1878), contains numerous notes on the native tribes, and their political relations to the South African colonists and the Orange River Republic.

limited, and until it was broken up in the war which the British waged in 1879 with its king, Cetywayo—or Ketchwayo, as the name is pronounced—was a compact despotism, a constant terror to Natal, to the Orange Free State, and to the Transvaal. The country is now divided among thirteen independent chiefs, some of whom are not Zulus at all; while one, John Dunn, is the son of a Scottish doctor in Natal, and though to all intents and purposes a Zulu, he has not one drop of black blood in his veins. Zululand is wild and mountainous, but what we have said in regard to the region already described applies equally well to it.*

The Gasa country, or the region north of Delagoa Bay, to the Lower Zambesi, is also under an independent Zulu chief, who has permitted the Portuguese to settle on the coast here and there. The Matabele Kaffir country, very mountainous, and in places attaining a considerable elevation, is another military despotism, extending over the region lying inland from the latter kingdom. Another of these kingdoms, all on the same model, was that of the Makololo, a Basuto race, who, penetrating to the middle valley of the Zambesi, enslaved the Barotse who inhabited it, and for a time lorded it over this region. It would, however, appear, from the information collected by Major Serpa Pinto and Dr. Holub, the more recent travellers in this direction, that dissensions arose among the conquerors, advantage of which was taken by the Barotse to rise and exterminate the Makololo.

Natal.

This colony is now coterminous with the Cape, but is of comparatively small importance, compared with that dependency. In size it is also much smaller, being little more than one-half the area of Scotland. Physico-geographically it has been described as composed of the ramifications of wooded mountains and hills, "which slope down like the fingers of a hand from the higher cliff-like edge of the Drakenberg," 10,000 feet in height. Between these mountainous fingers there are many fertile valleys, watered by constantly flowing streams, and between the coast and the mountains there lies a grassy flat or undulating country, pastured by herds of cattle, sheep, and horses. The country is a semi-tropical one, but owing to its position the summer heats are not intense; there are no endemic fevers or other diseases peculiar to it, while the winters are said to be peculiarly pleasant. No portion of South Africa is so well watered, for no fewer than twenty-three rivers flow through it to the Indian Ocean, but the lofty character of the country may be inferred from the fact that not one of these is navigable. The scenery is in places picturesque, and though only a small portion of the colony is as yet settled, it is dotted throughout with sugar plantations, for the most part cultivated by Indian coolies, who are more skilful, and above all, steadier labourers than the natives. Coffee is also grown in the lowlands, while wheat, oats, and maize—or "mealies," as it is universally called in South Africa—are reared to a considerable extent. In the coast region, extending for about fifteen miles inland, the

* A complete list of works on the country up to date will be found in the *Proceedings of the Geographical Society* for 1879 and 1880. See also "Physical Geography of Zululand and its Borders," by the Rev. George Blencowe, in *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1879), p. 324.

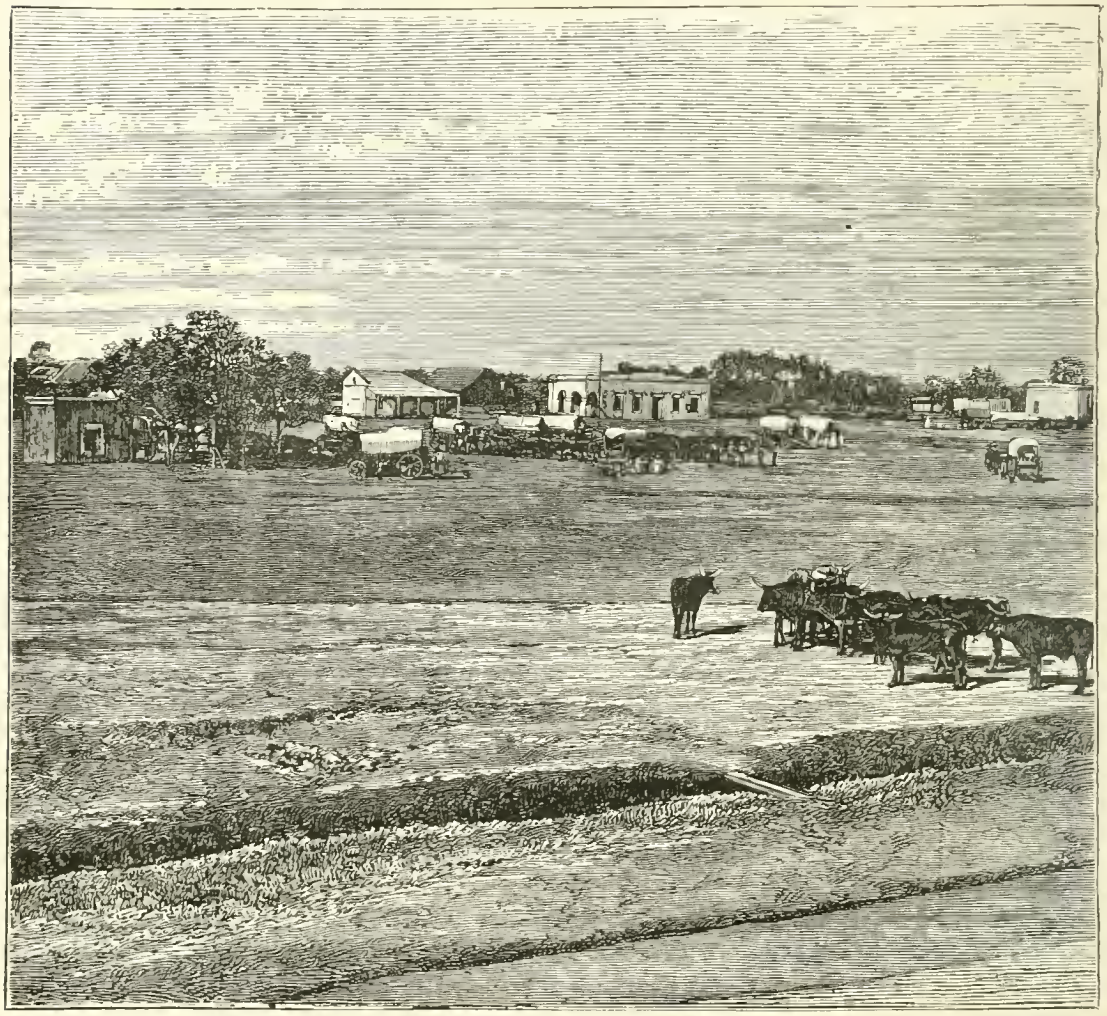
principal settlements are situated. The capital, Pietermaritzburg, or Maritzburg, as it is more frequently called, is situated sixty miles inland from Durban, or Port Natal—to use its older and once more familiar name—the only harbour, and that not a good one, owing to the existence of a sand bar at its mouth. There is also a considerable waggon traffic through the interior down into the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, from whence Natal products find their way to the Cape Colony; and in the same way the wool, ostrich feathers, and ivory of Central Africa and the region mentioned are sent out of the country through the Natal Port.

The colony has before it a not unpromising future. Indeed, in many respects it is—the harbour question aside—one of our African dependencies with the most varied capabilities. Originally selected by the Boers fleeing from British law and institutions as a home in which they might do as seemed good to them, it was, in 1856, created a separate colony, though not with the responsible government which prevails at the Cape. In the fertile coast region all semi-tropical crops can be reared in plenty. In addition to sugar and coffee, indigo, arrowroot, tobacco, ginger, rice, pepper, and cotton are grown, and among other fruits of the tropics the pineapple ripens in the open air. Cereals and the crops of cooler climates thrive in the higher ground further in the interior, while the hills and upland valleys are more fitted for grazing. In the deep glens in the Drakenberg there are forests of fine timber, which also exist in some tracts near the coast. Natal is, however, not dependent on its wood; for coal is found in places, and limestone abounds. The great drawback which the settlers complain of is the want of labour. Though there are some 290,000 Zulus and Kaffirs in the country, the 23,000 Europeans are mainly dependent on coolie labour. It is, however, only just to add that the complaint of the inadaptability of the aborigines to the wants of their white neighbours is not altogether borne out by facts, for on every farm and in every sugar-mill numbers of natives (p. 156) may be seen at work, earning good wages, and though possibly not very presentable labourers, yet, considering the long period it takes to break a savage into habits of regular industry, the Natalians have not a great deal to complain about. In the best houses they are employed as domestic servants, and sometimes turn out wonderfully well; and though the coaches are usually driven by "Cape Boys," as the coloured descendants of the natives of St. Helena who emigrated to the Cape are called, the Zulus may be found attending to waggons, and generally making themselves useful throughout the country. With the exception of Durban and Pietermaritzburg—both small towns—there are no places of any size in the country. Its revenue in 1879 was £473,178, and its expenditure, owing to the extraordinary draughts which the Zulu war caused, £491,883. The colony has long had a small public debt, but having contracted for the building of 315 miles of railway, this has now risen to the total of £1,631,700.*

* Brooks: "Natal" (1877); Sandeman: "Eight Months in an Ox Waggon" (1878); Robinson: "Notes on Natal" (1872); Fritsch: "Die Eingeborenen Süd-Afrika's ethnographisch und anatomisch beschreiben" (1872); Gillmore: "The Great Thirst Land" (1878); War Office: "Précis of Information on Natal" (1879); Hartmann: "Die Völkers Afrikas" (1879), and "Die Nigritier" (1873); Elton: "Travels and Researches" (1879); Holub: "Eine Culturskizze des Marutse-Mambunda-Reiches in Süd-Central Afrika" (1879), and "Sieben Jahre in Süd Afrika" (1879); Shaw: "The Geography of South Africa" (1878), etc. etc.

The Orange Free State.

The emancipation of slaves throughout the British possessions intensified the discontent of the "Boers," or Dutch settlers in the Cape, with our rule. Accordingly, in order to get into a land where they might steal land, enslave natives, and generally do as seemed



VIEW OF POTCHEFSTROM, IN THE TRANSVAAL.

good in their own eyes, a large portion of them "trekked," with their waggons and belongings, northward across the Drakenberg and the Orange River, and settled in what is now the Colony of Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal. This was in 1837; but in 1843 the British Government followed them up, and Natal ceased to be a refuge for those Dutchmen anxious to live after their own fashion—albeit that fashion was far from good for their neighbours, white or black, and especially for the latter. The malcontents, after much trouble and some fighting, neither of which redound greatly

TRAVELLING IN GRIQUALAND.

to our credit, were permitted to establish themselves in this central district of South Africa, on conditions that they should not molest the natives. A republic was accordingly established between the two head streams of the Orange River west of the Kathlamba or Drakensberg Mountains, and as such has continued up to the present date. At one time the country was so badly governed, and so rapidly sinking into the condition which forced us to annex the Transvaal, that its end seemed near. But the discovery of the Diamond Fields

VIEW IN THE DRAKENSBERG MOUNTAINS, ORANGE FREE STATE.

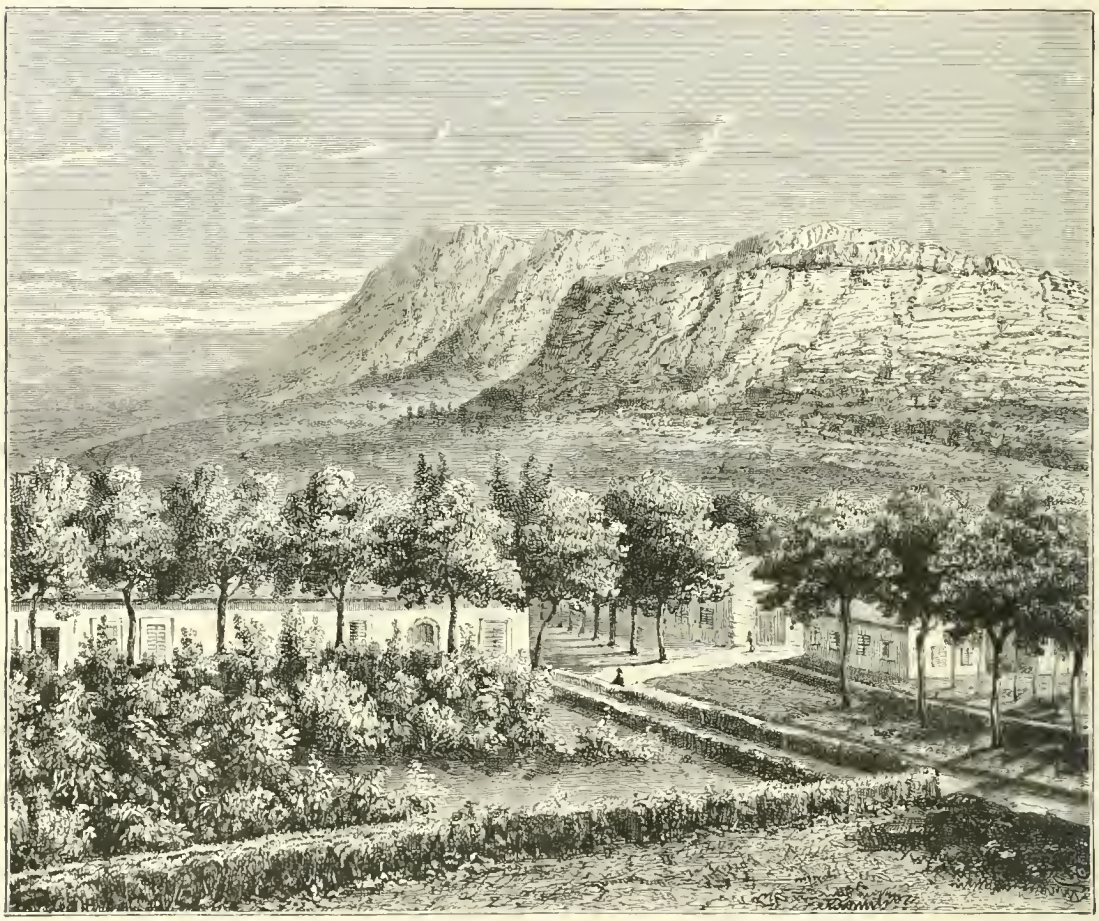
gave a great impetus to the Orange State, and at present it is more thriving than ever. Its revenue, which is over £158,000 per annum, exceeds its expenditure, and its small public debt is now paid off, while its white population of 80,000 promises to increase, owing to recent disturbances in the Transvaal. So long as President Brand and his fellow-citizens can manage to keep on good terms with their powerful neighbours—black and white—they are not at all likely ever to be disturbed. Our experience of Boers is not agreeable in the past, and the events of 1877—1881 have not so greatly prepossessed us in their favour that we shall be inclined to hunger after more territory peopled by this unmalleable race of South African colonists. A great country it is not likely ever to become. It is

entirely shut off from the sea, and can only be reached by long, weary waggon journeys, either from Port Elizabeth in the Cape, or from Durban through Natal. The country has all the characteristics of this portion of South Africa. It is part of the plateau of the inner region, and consists of undulating grassy plains, elevated about 4,000 feet above the level of the sea, and stretches in the north, almost without a break in the view, for mile after mile, though in the south the level expanse is broken by a number of little isolated hills. Hence, though agriculture is pursued in places where there is water, or where irrigation can be applied, sheep and cattle grazing is the main occupation of the people, and wool its almost sole export. Diamonds, garnets, and other precious stones have been found in some quantity, and gold is said to exist. But as yet the Dutch settlers have not encouraged the search for these treasures, wisely considering that it is better to trust to what they have rather than run the risk of exciting the cupidity of their neighbours by attracting crowds of strangers to their country. The native Bechuanas are at present peaceable, an immense advantage, for the population is scattered over an area of country a fourth larger than Ireland; and though there are a few English, Germans, and other "foreigners" in the Republic, the great majority of the people are descended from ancestors who had been long resident in the Cape. The climate is well suited to Europeans. Though cold in the winter it is not very hot in the summer, and owing to its remarkable dryness the heat, even when intense, is by no means unhealthy. Sometimes the weather is sultry, and "sulphury" for days at a time; then suddenly the rolling of thunder is heard, and amid a storm of lightning the electricity is dispersed and the air becomes cool and pleasant.

A Dutchman and an Englishman in South Africa are two very different people. The Boer will live, even after he is comparatively rich, in a house of which the floor is the hard-trodden earth, and surrounded with scarcely any of the comforts which the most remote English settler would consider essential to his existence. Yet the Dutchman is perfectly content, while the Englishman is full of complaints of the country, the Government, his neighbours, the climate, the soil, and of everything and everybody save his own disposition and himself. The Englishman is a social personage; he likes society, and gossips of his own race. The Boer cares for no one's smoke in sight of his chimney, and, like the Western American settler who moved when a second stranger had been seen near his cabin "that fall," would almost resent any one taking up a farm in his close vicinity. His pastoral tastes require much land for their development, and nothing troubles him so much as the fear that in time he may find his cattle and sheep too many for the grass which he has to offer them. Hence a Dutchman sees little forbidding in the dreary country north of the Orange River, though to a stranger, even from the least alluring portion of the Cape, the Orange River and Transvaal are most depressing. There is nothing picturesque about it. There is no wood, and wondrous little water, so that when a drought comes no more unlovely land can be imagined than that in which the Orange State Republicans have taken up their home. Yet it is far from a wilderness. On the contrary, it is just such a country as will keep men from idleness, and from relapsing into that dreamy laziness which richer lands are apt to engender. Sheep flourish here

much better than in Australia, and if irrigation is applied the crops of temperate regions will flourish on the unexhausted soil. One inhabitant—or, at the outside, two to two miles—is about the density of population throughout this country, and it must be remembered that nearly all the land within the Republic is taken up at this rate, though not all occupied, so that if any one should in a melancholy moment be tempted to cast in his lot with the Boers, he must either buy part of the soil from the present possessors or marry one of the "Dutch-built" daughters of the patriarchal owners of one of these great farms, and trust to his generosity in providing for the young couple, in the same way as he "sets up" his sons, by bestowing on them a slice of his estate with a sufficiency of stock to commence life. There are a few "Africanders," or Englishmen born in the Cape, scattered through the country, and the majority of the shopkeepers in the towns are of that nationality, while English is very generally spoken. Bloemfontein, the capital, appears to the visitor very British, and an Englishman is under the constitution quite as eligible for the legislature as a Dutchman, provided he can persuade the many-acred farmers to send him to the Volksraad, or Parliament. There is also much English capital in the country, and a good deal of the enterprise displayed is also British. But nothing is more certain than that, as a rule, the Orange Free State Republicans are satisfied with their lot, and will not be at all likely, if affairs go on as they are doing, ever to seek annexation to the English colonies. Nor have the Dutch here many grievances of which to complain, as regards their neighbours, except that, having no outlet to the sea, all goods intended for them must be sent through the Cape or *viâ* Natal, and in any case pay duty to colonies from which the consumers of the goods derive no profit whatever. They ask, and not unreasonably, that goods for the Orange State should be allowed to pass through the British colonies in bond, for they consider it hard that their citizens should be compelled to pay taxes for the support of a Government in which they have no interest, and which does nothing for them in return. Mr. Anthony Trollope, who has written as pleasant an account of this part as of the other sections of South Africa, does not recommend British tourists to come to the Orange Republic until they have exhausted the more beaten tracks. Yet, even by his own account they are likely to arrive in quest of more important matters than scenery. The dryness of the climate is such that Bloemfontein, the capital of this little State, situated on a branch of the Modder—a tributary of the Vaal River—is rapidly becoming a kind of inland Madeira for sufferers with weak chests and diseased lungs, though the long five or six days' journey of thirteen hours a day in a coach, or still longer in a bullock waggon, seriously detracts from the pleasure of the trip, and quite as seriously adds to its cost. The town itself is about the most agreeable portion of the country, though lying very solitary. Kimberley, its nearest neighbour of any importance, is over 100 miles distant; Cape Town is 680 miles to the south-east; and Port Elizabeth, whence it draws the chief portion of its supplies, 400 miles to the south, and it is about the same distance from Durban and Pretoria. The town stands on a plain, with well-defined boundaries, and, excepting the native village of Wray Hook, without any suburb. Isolated from the world as it is, the traveller who has been jolted over grassless plains day after day, welcomes this remote Dutch village

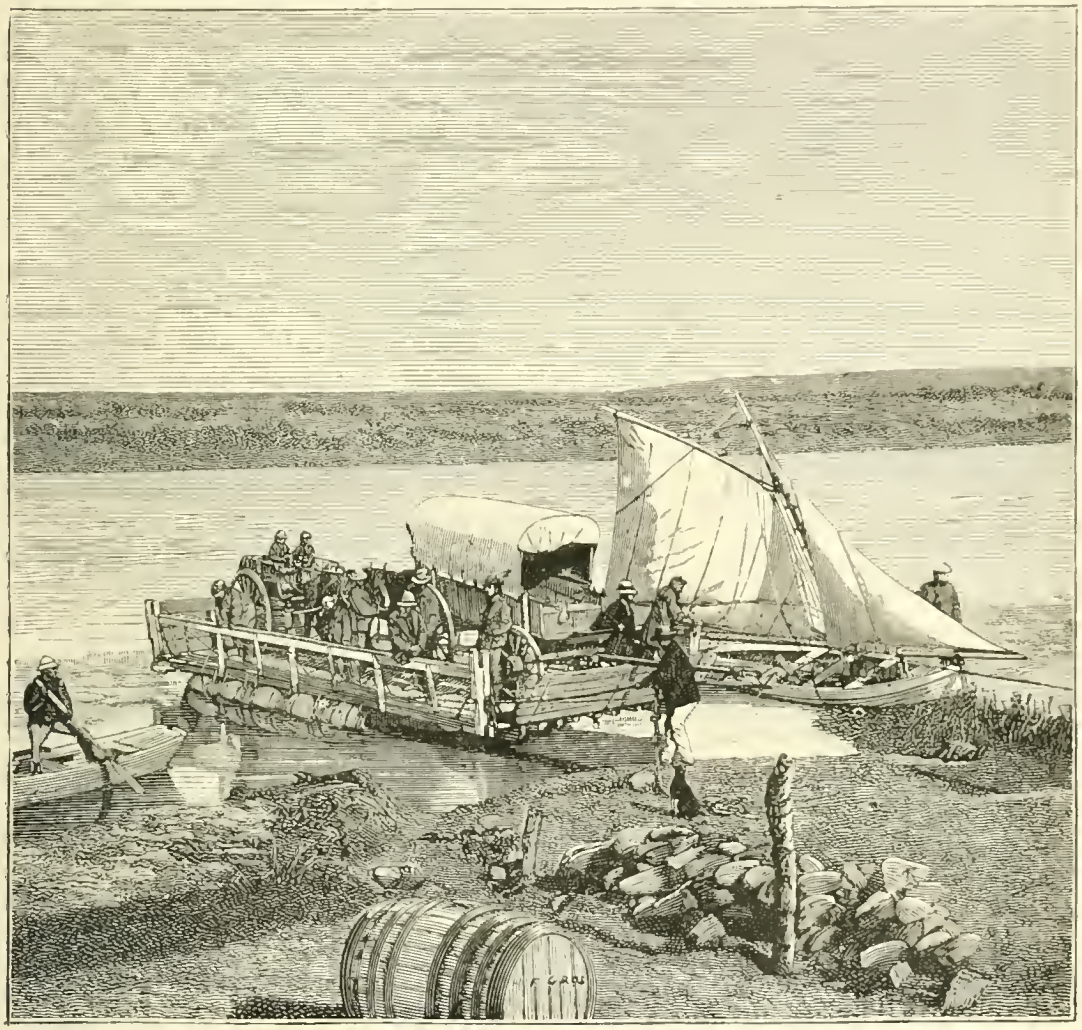
of something under 3,000 people as an oasis in the wilderness. There is nothing much in Bloemfontein that suggests the necessity of its existence, except that as a State requires a capital, the Orange Republicans fixed theirs here, and so in this decent, clean, well-behaved town the Volksraad assembles, and transacts business without any display, but by all accounts with a sufficiency of dignity and common sense. It is Dutch with an Anglo-African veneer. Few of the houses are over one storey high; water is plenti-



A VILLAGE IN THE ORANGE FREE STATE.

ful, but fuel is scarce, and, of course, correspondingly dear. Everything, indeed, is dear except beef and mutton, and when Mr. Trollope visited the place butter was 5s. 6d. a pound, which proves that dairy-farming has not as yet taken root in the republic. The town, as, indeed, the country generally, is well provided with schools, and though the language taught is supposed to be Dutch, English is in reality the most important tongue, and the one in which most of the school-books used are written. "In the country," writes the author to whom I have referred, "the schools are probably much more Dutch, though by no means so Dutch, as are the Members [of the Volksraad] themselves. The same difference

prevails in all things in which the urban feeling or the rural feeling is exhibited. Nothing can be more Dutch than the Volksraad; many members, I am assured, cannot speak a word of English; the debates are all in Dutch. But the President was chosen from a British community, having been a member of the Cape House of Assembly, and the Government Secretary was imported from the same colony — and the Chief Justice. The



A FERRY ON THE VAAL RIVER, TRANSVAAL.

Inspector of Schools is a Scotchman." It has also an English Bishop with a large staff of clergy and "clerical young ladies." The town is excessively quiet, and seems contented and happy. "I will not say," writes its most famous visitor, "that Bloemfontein is itself peculiarly beautiful. It has no rapid river running through it, as has the capital of the Tyrol; no picturesqueness of hills to make it lovely, as has Edinburgh; no glory of buildings, such as belong to Florence. It is not quaint, as Nuremberg, romantic as

Prague, or even embowered in foliage, as are some of the Dutch villages in the western provinces of the Cape Colony. But it has a completeness and neatness which make it very pleasant to the eye. One knows that no one is over-hungry there or over-worked. The work, indeed, is very slight. Friday is a half-holiday for every one. Three o'clock ends the day for all important business. I doubt whether any shop is open after six. At eight all the servants—who, of course, are coloured people—are at home at their own huts in Wray Hook. No coloured person is allowed to walk about Bloemfontein after eight. This, it may be said, is oppressive to them; but if they are expelled from the streets so also are they relieved from their work. At Wray Hook they can walk about as much as they please—or go to bed." In an imperfect world they can expect nothing more reasonable.

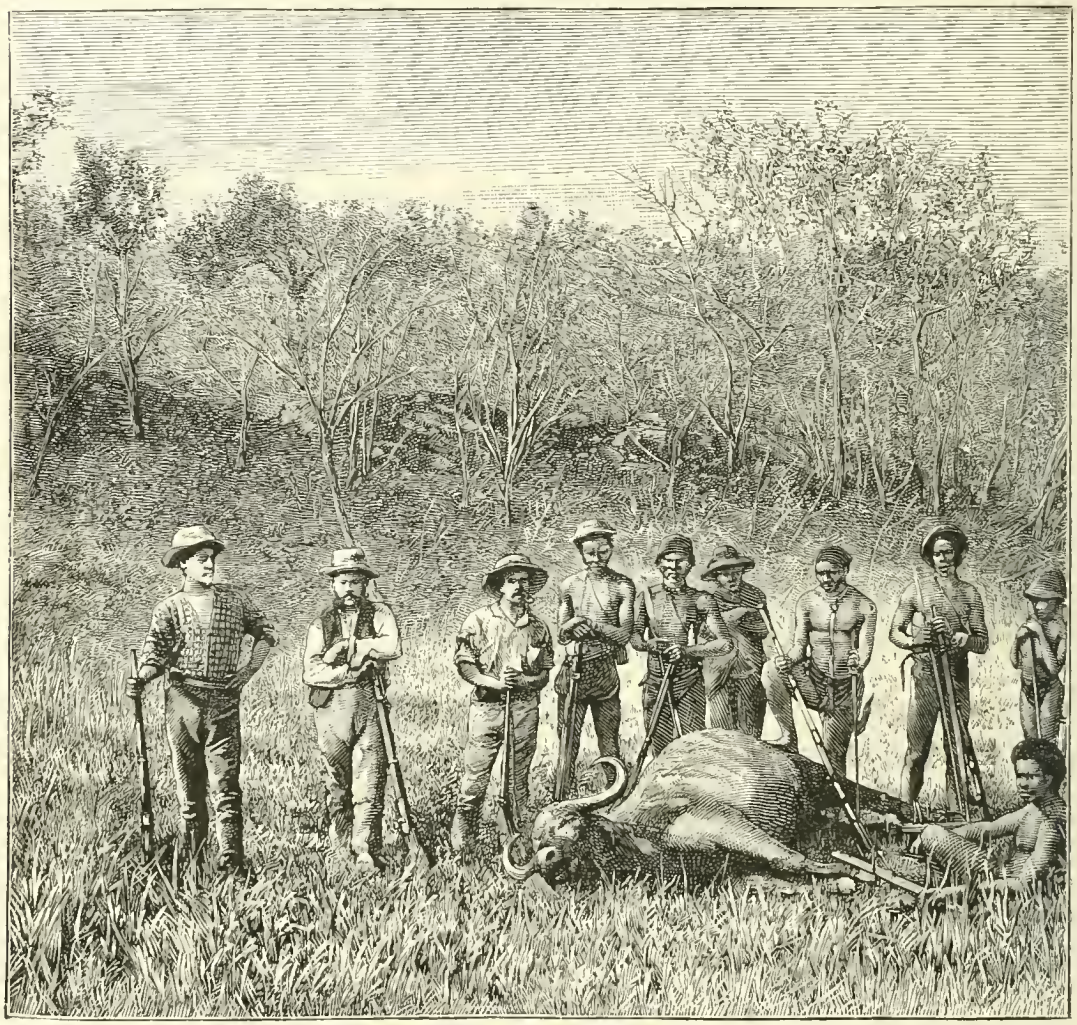
The Transvaal.

Up to 1877, we should have had to note another Dutch Republic in South Africa; but in that year the Transvaal, established in 1841, like the Orange State, by Boers discontented with our rule, was also annexed to the British possessions as a Crown colony. For long the Republic had been egregiously misgoverned, a fact of no immediate consequence to any one save the persons so ruled, had not this threatened to embroil us also. At the date mentioned we were on the eve of a native war, while it was perfectly certain that the Zulus on the border of the Transvaal meditated a descent on that thinly-peopled country, with a result which might have been fatal to the Dutchmen, and eventually most uncomfortable for us. On the principle, therefore, of self-preservation being the first law of nature, the Transvaal was unceremoniously annexed. Whether on the whole this was a politic act—and above all, a moral one—has been stoutly contested. Into this question of ethical casuistry we shall not enter. But that, up to date, it has not proved pleasant in consequences to us is perfectly certain, for the people at large have never acquiesced in it, and at the time of writing the majority of them are in open revolt against the British authority. They have even re-proclaimed the Republic, a troublesome formality which they might have spared themselves, for whether for good or bad, it is the avowed intention of the Government to retain the Transvaal. The country comprises an area of about 114,000 square miles, or, in other words, a region not much less in extent than Great Britain and Ireland. Yet, if we exclude the 270,000 Zulus and other Kaffir tribes, the white population does not exceed 35,000 or 40,000.* These settlers are scattered over the country, isolated in families, living each in the centre of their huge farm of from six to ten thousand acres, after the patriarchal fashion, which is the universal custom of the South African farmer of Dutch extraction. Of late gold, both in alluvial deposits and quartz reefs, has been discovered, and worked with profit in several districts, and silver, lead, copper, cobalt, iron, and coal are plentiful. The Boer, however, cares very

* Mr. H. Shepstone ("Parliamentary Bluebook," C, 2584) gives a much larger estimate of the population, viz., 771,930 natives, 33,739 Dutch, and 5,316 others; in all, 813,985 souls. See also the works of Mrs. Hutchinson and Mr. Atcherley.

little for any occupation except farming. For commerce he has little aptitude, and hence, in the settlements, such as Utrecht, Wakkerstroom, Potchefstroom, Heidelberg, Rustenburg, and Lydenburg, with which the country is dotted, the inhabitants are chiefly Englishmen, and the storekeepers almost invariably so. There are also a few Germans, but the population, as in the Orange Free State, is essentially Dutch, and in the rural solitudes almost entirely of that race. In some respects the country is one more favourable for a large population than the Orange Free State, for its features and climate are more varied. Like that region, the Transvaal is a high pastoral plateau, or series of plateaux, broken by ranges of hills of inconsiderable altitude, while to the west it is bounded by the country which finally merges in the Kalahari Desert. To the north, along the Limpopo River, it partakes of a sub-tropical character. The hills in the country are the Magalies, or Kashan Mountains, which form the southern edge of the plateau known as the High Veldt, or Field. This comprises an area of about 35,000 square miles, chiefly of pastoral land, elevated from 3,000 to 8,000 feet above the sea, necessarily possessing a bracing climate, and for the most part well watered in the summer, but dry during the winter months, which is that from March or April till October. The detached ranges known as the Waterberg, Hanglip, Makapan, &c., join with the Drakensberg on the north-east, and form the region known as the Middle Veldt, which occupies about 25,000 miles of broken country, intersected with wooded "Kloofs," or gulleys, but in the many valleys well suited for the cultivation of grain and other crops of temperate climates, though, as a rule, without that extent of open country which would render it sufficient for pastoral purposes on a large scale. The Low Veldt, or Bush country, is the region on the north in the direction of the Limpopo River, rarely over from 2,000 to 4,000 feet above the sea. Here the usual characters of the Transvaal disappear, and the features of the hot lands to the north make their appearance. Mimosa-groves and thorn-thickets become disagreeably numerous, and, worst of all, the climate, which has hitherto been healthy becomes feverish, especially during the rainy season, which is in the summer months. Indeed, were it not for the nature of the country, the Transvaal would be semi-tropical throughout, for its extension northward puts it on a level with countries which further to the east and west are hot and often pestilential. The Vaal and the Limpopo are the chief rivers, but neither of them is navigable, and during the dry season both are so interrupted by shallows, rapids, and sandbanks as to be useless for the purpose of transport, even in small boats. Agriculture is pursued to some extent in the Middle Veldt, but the herds of sheep, cattle, and pigs, and the rearing of horses, are the great—it might almost be said the sole—occupation of the Transvaal Dutchmen. The horse disease—a low fever—is, however, a sad pest, and in the summer time especially is prevalent in localities in the vicinity of standing water. Hence, during that season the horses are removed to the higher hills, and animals which have had the illness and recovered—in the country phrase, which are "salted"—bring high prices. Dogs bred in Europe also rarely survive long in the Transvaal, and in the low-lying ground to the north the tsetse fly, so fatal to horses and other domestic animals over a large portion of Africa, is a terrible scourge to the farmers. At one time lions, elephants, giraffes, buffaloes, and ostriches were common in nearly every

part of the country. But the progress of settlements and the raids of the professional hunters have driven these animals either to the north or into the more inaccessible parts of the "Veldts;" mountain antelopes, zebras, quagga, springbocks, and wildebeestes are, however, still plentiful, and provide a large portion of the farmers' supplies of animal food. The Bush Veldt is the least settled part of the country, though here



BUFFALO HUNTERS IN THE TRANSVAAL.

a few planters find it to their profit to grow coffee and the sugar-cane. A greater number are settled in the Middle Veldt, engaged in mixed farming, wheat-growing, &c., and though, as we have already pointed out, stock keeping is pre-eminently *the* industry of the Transvaal, various metals are known to exist. But with the exception of gold and diamonds, scarcely any of them have ever been attempted to be mined. Coal exists in large quantities, and when railways span the region, will be of high value in a country so

thinly wooded as is most of the High Veldt. At present roads scarcely exist, those dignified with that name being merely waggon-tracks. A railway to Delagoa Bay would immediately open up the Transvaal. Prior to the annexation, the Dutchmen had meditated such a scheme, and had even gone so far as to provide some of the material; but the funds were non-existent. There were subsequently some rumours of our Government proposing to

VIEW OF PRETORIA, THE CAPITAL OF THE TRANSVAAL.

complete this important public work; and still later the Portuguese, to whom Delagoa Bay was assigned, on the arbitration of the President of the French Republic, have more than once been reported as having resolved to open out the country. However, a railway terminating in foreign territory, with the only port which can give traffic to it in the hands of a nation not the most liberal in its views, and that port, above all, Delagoa Bay, one of the most pestilential parts of East Africa, has drawbacks; while one terminating at Durban will prove so expensive that it must still be

considered as among the sanguine hopes of the future, should the Transvaal continue under its present masters.

This country—like every other of the same nature—swarms with adventurers, a large percentage of whom are English. Hence the tales of "gold rushes" and "unlimited resources" must be listened to cautiously, while the Transvaal General Chokes with land, or "land scrip" for sale, ought to be carefully shunned. A few years ago Mr. Froude designated the Transvaal Republic as "The Alsatia of Africa, where every runaway from justice, every broken-down speculator, every reckless adventurer, finds an asylum." Mr. Aylward, who does not err in minimising the importance of the Transvaal, is not much more complimentary to his countrymen in the ex-Dutch commonwealth. "When you meet a man in the Transvaal with a store, or even a couple of stores (African for 'shop'), studs, wristbands, and a clean shirt, adorned with, perhaps, diamond links, and who drives in a trap from Government House to the Club twice or thrice daily, you are naturally led to believe that he has a stake in the country. Only a few such men—and but a very few—have anything of the sort. The shopkeepers, as a rule, do not even own the counters over which they sell their goods. They are merely the bondsmen, and generally a little less than the servants, of houses in the seaports and elsewhere, by which they are what is called 'supported,' and to whom, often, the up-country branches are over head and ears in debt."

The Boers are the real backbone of the country, and in their native purity they do not inhabit, and rarely visit, towns. In the Transvaal there are about 7,000 families living by farm work of one kind or another; they are really a peasantry, though the largest landowners in the world. Hence the feeling of disappointment which visitors experience when they see a people with so few comforts around them. Mr. Aylward's remarks on the subject are so apposite that I prefer to quote the passage in full:—"Men cannot conceive how the proprietors of vast lands, and owners of flocks and herds, have advanced so little in the acquisition of the comforts and luxuries of European civilisation. They look for farmers where they should expect only to find wealthy peasants; and as they see no evidences around them of the wanderings, fights, fevers, agonies of long travel, and suffering through which these poor people have passed, they are but too ready to accuse them of unprogressiveness and want of enterprise, when really the enterprise has been exceptionally great, and the progress remarkable under the circumstances. The character of the Boers, as well as their habits and customs, is strongly impressed by their wanderings and sufferings. If one of the family is about to ride but a few miles beyond his own extensive holding, before leaving the house he respectfully bids farewell to his father and friends, with almost as much ceremony as a European would before undertaking a journey of some weeks' duration. In the same way, persons, whether they be visitors, neighbours, or kinsmen, coming to a homestead greet each of the family on their first entrance under its roof, and are in turn shaken hands with by each and every member of the household. This custom arose from the meetings and the partings of forty-four years, during which those who met, met as persons delivered from great dangers, and those who parted, parted as do those who may meet no more. The Boers had few candles in the wilderness during their long

and weary pilgrimage. A little coarse fat from slaughtered animals, with a bit of rag, made their only lamp. They consequently acquired the habit of retiring early to rest, the daylight throughout its entire length being utilised for their labours. This habit, with the necessity for early rising incumbent on herdsmen, has clung to them; and it is but rarely that you meet with a family that enjoys those pleasant evening hours so dear to Europeans, when, amid comfortable lights and fires, the labours of the day being at an end, the household devotes itself to the innocent pleasures of social and domestic intercourse. With the Boers, the sun being set, and the cattle and stock impounded in the kraals and places of safety, the short twilight is almost immediately followed by a dinner and a supper all in one—the meal of the day. The table is no sooner cleared than the family assembles, as it has done for years in the desert, for united prayer. This duty accomplished, they separate at once for their different quarters. People complain much of the Boers' houses, saying they are untidy, unfloored, and insufficiently lighted. It should be remembered, on the other hand, that the house is almost always the work of the owner's own hands. It has been put up under difficulties of a most exceptional nature in a country but yesterday rescued from wild beasts and still wilder barbarians. Whether it be beside some beautiful stream, or standing upon a naked and desolate flat, or buried under steep hill-sides in some lonely and almost inaccessible mountain kloof, it has been constructed without the assistance of skilled labour, and from rough materials found upon or near to its site. Beams do not grow in every direction ready cut up and dressed to the builder's hand; those that the Boers have used have been procured at a cost of much labour and expense from very considerable distances. The difficulty of obtaining heavy timber has exercised an influence even over the shape of the farmers' houses, which cannot afford the luxury of immense rooms and spreading roofs. In the same way window-frames, and glass to fill them, were for years almost entirely unobtainable by the settlers north of the Orange and Vaal Rivers. Therefore the windows are in many houses small and few in number, resembling more often than otherwise shot holes." All this is undoubtedly true and just. But it does not explain why the Boer, now that he is wealthy, does not replace—as would the American or Australian settler under very similar circumstances—the primitive cabin by one of a better description. The Dutch farmer is undoubtedly slow. He belongs to a race not proverbially swift in action, and a long residence through generations in the wilds of Africa has not accelerated his intellectual or physical activity. Yet, all things considered, he is an admirable pioneer, and it is therefore not miraculous that, after toiling so keenly for the right of living after his own fashion, he should resent any other people dictating to him a different method of obtaining higher social or political felicitude.

The little "towns" in the Transvaal are at best only villages (pp. 160, 161, 169). Some of them are barely more than hamlets, which remind the visitor of places of the same size in some portions of the drier parts of Holland or Germany. There is usually a square in the centre, where the "Kirke" is generally built, with one main street, a hotel or two, several taverns and stores, and a billiard-room. The place is for the most part rather squalid. Nothing is wasted on external ornament. Utility is the main idea, and the wool trade passing through it is the pride of the citizens, who live by

the growers of the wool. Pretoria, the capital (p. 169), is a more pretending little town. It lies in a basin on a plateau 4,500 feet above the sea, and is blessed with a mild climate, albeit one that requires the greatest care, as it is subject to changes so sudden as to be very trying to people of weak lungs and rheumatic temperament. Hail-storms of the most violent description are common, and a hot day will be succeeded by a dismally cold night. Potchefstroom (p. 160), 100 miles to the south-west of Pretoria, was the first capital, and claims still to be the largest town. But Pretoria, as the seat of government, has a dignity which is quite apart from the 2,500 people who live within its bounds. It is built, like many new "cities," with an eye to futurity. Its streets are broad, its squares spacious, and its limits architecturally on a very fine scale. But in the broad streets there are not many houses, and though the square has the usual "Kirke" and the residences of the principal magnates, commercial, political, and judicial, the centre of it is a favourite grazing-ground for wayfaring horses. But the Pretorians, knowing what it is to want water, have brought plenty of it into their town. It irrigates the flourishing gardens, and runs in streams along the streets, greatly to the refreshment of the eye, though perhaps not quite so much to the comfort of daintily-shod strangers. Hedges of roses blossom everywhere, and the weeping willow, so characteristic of all Transvaal towns, is here in even more than its usual profusion. Everything is, however, exceedingly dear, except what is actually produced on the spot; and though possibly a family could live here more cheaply than they could do at home — that is to say, they could get more to satisfy their hunger for less money—it is needless to say they could not do so with the same comfort, or with an approach to the refinement which they would obtain for a smaller expenditure "at home." Potchefstroom is only a second Pretoria—possibly a little bigger, but built, or rather laid out, on so large a scale, that it is difficult to estimate its real extent. Here again there is the great space covered with grass, the hedges of roses and the hedgerows of weeping willows, which are so high that an imaginative traveller, walking on the rutty grass-grown road between them, might for a moment fancy himself wandering in some English lane. The other towns in the Transvaal are mere hamlets of from twelve to fifty houses, and are rather undeveloped, unkempt, disorderly-looking places in the gristle of civitude, though—their inhabitants fondly hope—destined before long to harden into the bone of mature strength.

The future of the Transvaal it would be rash to forecast. The Dutch population is at present very hostile to us, and this generation will never see it friendly. The present insurrection (February, 1881) will, of course, be put down, but there may be future attempts if ever we are so placed as to make the task of crushing them difficult or impossible, and though the Orange Free State Republicans will not willingly quarrel with us, they do not love us, and will do nothing to make our hold of the Transvaal any easier or any more agreeable to its British masters, if, indeed, they do not give secret aid and comfort to our enemies. The country has few immediately available resources. The salt pans, of which a number are scattered over the territory, are not sources of much wealth to anybody. The gold—placer and quartz—of the Transvaal may be as abundant as its seekers wish. It may even be proved that Zimbaye, where Carl Mauch discovered the

VIEW OF BARKLY, OR KLIPDRIFT, A TOWN IN GRIQUALAND WEST.

remains of ancient and unknown buildings and workings,* was the Ophir of Solomon's time —a locality which has been "identified" in half a dozen places elsewhere—and the cobalt and lead mines may prove as valuable as the coal ought to do. But still, the system of land division in the Transvaal is not likely to attract many additional settlers outside the towns. For there is no land for emigrants as there is in any other colonies, unless, as in the Orange Free State, the new comer can persuade the old settler to sell out. The Boers, who first "trekked" here, divided out the country into six-thousand-acre farms, and though by family arrangement or otherwise there are private estates smaller than this area, yet on the other hand there are some farms considerably larger. The Middle Veldt, sometimes called the "Garden of the Transvaal," will yield—as it does at present—plenty of wheat, barley, oats, and maize, or "mealies," which in their unripe state are cut for forage to stable cattle, hay being unknown. Oranges, lemons, figs, grapes, peaches, apricots, apples, pears, and the usual temperate and sub-tropical fruits are plentiful in different parts of the country, or may often be found growing all in one garden, which proves the temperate character of the climate. Wool and a considerable amount of gold are its almost only exports. The cattle are also numerous where the tsetse fly does not prevail. But the "sickness" has hitherto much interfered with the rearing of horses. In brief, the Transvaal may for the present be considered in a transition stage, with its immediate prospects not very bright, and its future not quite so rosy as its best friend might desire.

Portuguese East Africa, and the Country Beyond.

Delagoa Bay is a Portuguese possession, with a village called Lorenço Marques as its capital. A viler place does not exist, and the few natives in the vicinity are a degraded race, who recognise the rule of Dom Louis' pro-consuls only just as far as the shot from their rusty cannon can reach. But all the coast for 1,400 miles north to near Cape Delgado and for some distance into the interior is claimed by the Portuguese, and governed nominally as their Province of Mozambique. But the settlements are few, and only trading stations. Everything is very backward. The Governor-General is all but absolute, though he often finds it all he can do, to keep not so much the natives in subjection as the garrison at his disposal, composed as it is mainly of convicts. The settlers are in many cases also "jail-birds," who have been pardoned, or permitted to live here under surveillance, or Indian Banians, that is, men of the trading castes, who conduct the barter with the natives in ivory, gum copal, hides, ground nuts, wax, &c., in exchange for arms and ammunition. Some of the settlers on the Lower Zambesi are a trifle more flourishing, and in former times exported, beside the usual products, gold dust, grain, coffee, sugar, oil, and indigo. But all of these

* Petermann's "Geographische Mittheilungen," Appendix No. 37 (1874); Hübner: *Ibid* (1872); Cohen: "Erläuternde Bemerkungen zu der Routenkarte einer Reise von Lydenburg nach den Goldfeldern" (1875); Elton Cotterill: "Travels and Researches" (1879); Jeppe: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1877 (Vol. XLVII., p. 217, and "Transvaal Almanac," 1880); Erskine: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1875 (Vol. XLV.) and 1878 (Vol. XLVIII.); Fynney, *Ibid.* (Vol. XLVIII., p. 16).

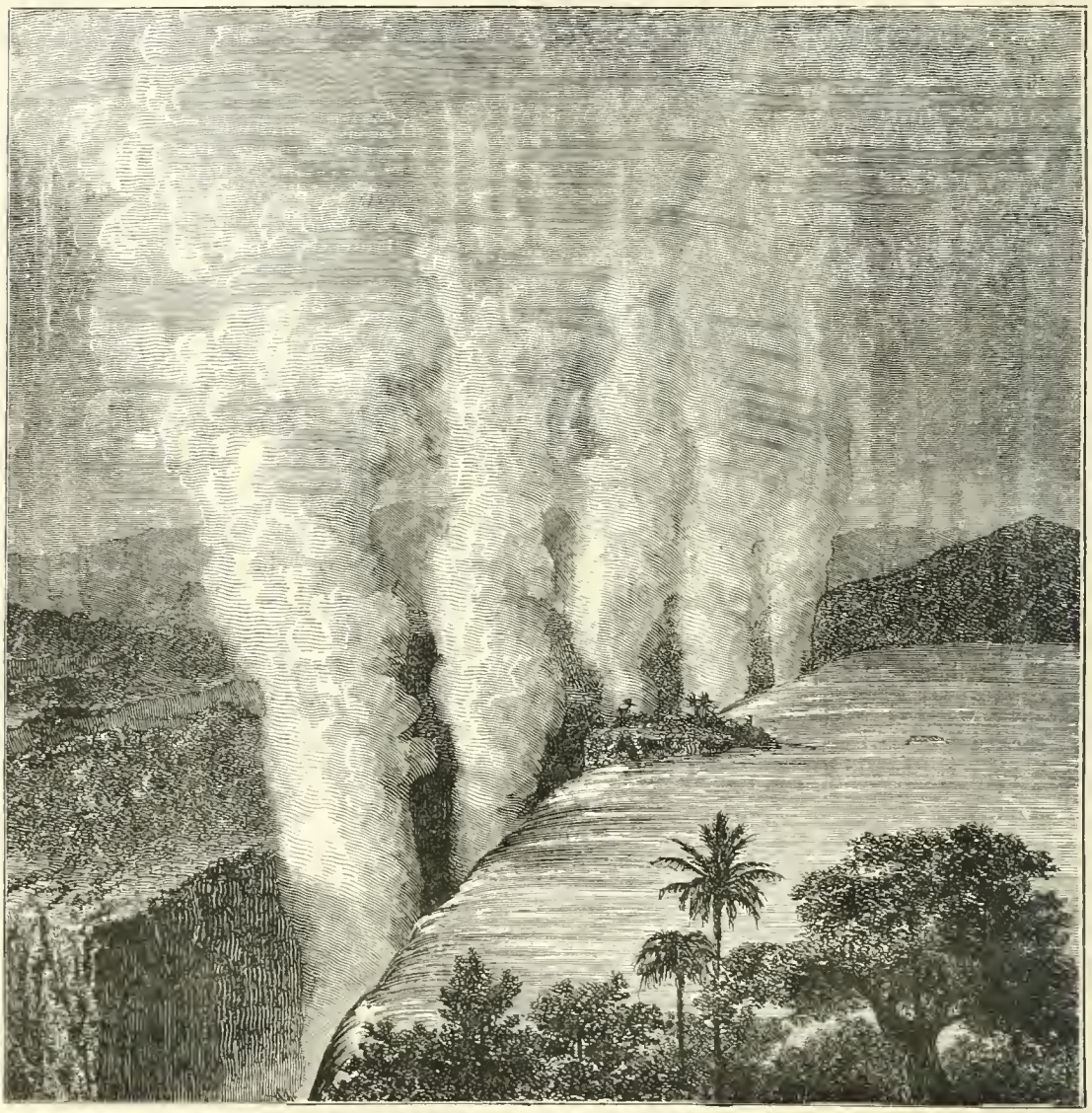
are in decay or ruin, and in most cases exist solely by the sufferance of the fierce tribes in their vicinity. The Sultanate of Zanzibar claims a long strip of territory opposite and to the north of the Island of Zanzibar, which forms the main, though much the smallest, portion of this enlightened Arab Sultan's kingdom; while the region on to the Red Sea and to the borders of Abyssinia is occupied by the country of the Somali and Gallas, people closely related to each other, and entirely distinct from the negro and Zulu-Kaffir tribes south of them, though this fact does not prevent their being frequently at war with each other. They are barbarians pure and simple, robbers of any caravan passing through their country, and certain to seize and carry into captivity the crews of vessels so unfortunate as to be wrecked on their coast. The Gallas, whose country is on the border of Abyssinia, are more civilised, and in the majority of cases Christians; many of the Somali are fanatical Mohammedans, but the majority of these little-known races are heathen. Their country is little explored, though it is known to be rich in grazing land, on which herds of camels, horses, cows, and fat-tailed sheep feed, and in myrrh and frankincense. But otherwise this immense region, stretching from the border of the Transvaal to the Red Sea, has little interest for civilised men. Opposite Zanzibar is the route, now getting very beaten, used by explorers, traders, and missionaries for reaching the Albert and Victoria Nyanzas, or lakes, and the great Central African lake, Tanganyika (p. 177), so well known to readers of modern travel literature. The people of this plateau of Central Africa have been already sketched,* and though high hopes have been held out of the country yielding a new field for commerce, the chances are at present that it will remain the monopoly of the Arab ivory trader or slave hunter.† Its available resources are believed to be small, and as it can only be reached on foot though a pestilential border region, the cost is likely to deter many traders from trying the experiment. All loads have to be carried on the backs of pagazzi, or porters, who tramp along in single file. Elephants have been tried, and though there is nothing to prevent these animals, if properly trained, from proving successful as burden bearers in Africa, the experiment cannot be said as yet to have proved quite successful.

Another interesting part of the region is the Zambesi River, which, with its tributary the Shire, forms an opening into Lake Nyanza. The river is navigable by streams from the sea up to the cataracts of the Shire. Round these a road is now constructed, and above this the river is again navigable. Between the Shire River and Lake Shirwa there is the mission settlement of Blantyre, built on a tolerably healthy hilly site, and on a promontory on the southern end of Lake Nyanza the settlement of Livingstonia, with which there is now mail communication *viâ* England as often and as quickly as there was to Calcutta fifty years ago. On the lake itself there is a steamer, and the country between its northern end and the Lake Tanganyika has been explored by Messrs. Stewart and Thomson (1879-80). On Tanganyika there is the well-known Arab trading settlement of Ujiji, and on the opposite shores a mission station of the Church of England. Lakes Victoria and Albert

* "Races of Mankind" Vol. III., pp. 1—39. 177—195.

† Thomson: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, December, 1880.

have also several missionary posts, established by different Christian sects, and succeeding more or less happily. The immense waterway—each from 280 to 300 miles in length, and averaging 80 to 90 in breadth—which these lakes and the others in their vicinity as yet unexplored or only known by report will afford points to Central Africa being thoroughly



THE VICTORIA FALLS OF THE ZAMBESI.

opened up in the near future. Out of these immense inland seas flow several of the greatest rivers of Africa. The Zambesi, famous for its magnificent falls named in honour of the Queen, does not rise in them, though its main tributary does, but the Congo undoubtedly obtains the early part of its waters from Tanganyika (320 miles in length and from 15 to 20 in breadth), while one of the principal branches of the Nile

is supplied by the overflow of Victoria Nyanza. This country has been the scene of the travels of most of the modern pioneers of Africa, but as yet is only known in vague outline. But as inner Africa is at this moment flooded by explorers of almost every nationality, the very names of whom it is extremely difficult even for a professed geographer to keep in remembrance, new and unfamiliar men succeeding each other so rapidly, the whole of the central plateau is likely before long to be more minutely described in all its bearings. In the last twenty—and more especially during the last ten—years the "Dark Continent" has been rapidly growing lighter, and, on the

AN ENCAMPMENT ON THE SHORES OF LAKE TANGANYIKA.

whole, our hopes of it are becoming brighter. It is true that as knowledge progresses we are not inclined, like Pistol, to "sing of Africa and golden joys," and just as little of "Afric's sunny fountains." Its "shores" are still as "burning" as when Bombastes heard on them "a hungry lion give a grievous roar." But, on the other hand, the reproach which a century and a half ago Swift jeered at is no longer applicable. In his day the chartographer had abundant space on the maps of the Continent, so almost entirely unknown except close to the coast, to "with savage pictures fill the gaps," and "o'er uninhabitable downs" to "place elephants instead of towns." Many such gaps are now very familiar regions, and in a few years may be the home of christened men.

CHAPTER IX.

Oceanic Islands: Africa: Antarctic Regions: Europe.

We now leave Africa and journey to Europe, separated from it by the narrow Strait of Gibraltar, dominated by the British fortress of the same name, situated on Spanish territory. From Somali Land our nearest route would be up the Red Sea, and across the Isthmus of Suez by way of M. de Lesseps' Canal. Thence, if so minded, we could, by skirting the southern shores of the Mediterranean, complete the circumnavigation of Africa, and land again in Morocco, which we have visited. But we shall take a more roundabout route before ending our long journey in Europe in order to visit a number of the islands of the ocean, on which hitherto we have not touched. Now Oceanic Islands are, in the language of the physical geographer, sea-surrounded pieces of land, which have various animals and plants allied to but differing from those of the nearest continent, showing that they have been long separated from it, if ever they were united. Such islands are the Galapagos (Vol. IV., pp. 2, 3).* Again, there are islands lying at considerable distances from continents, which to all intents and purposes are as much parts of them as if they were simply within a stone's throw of their shores; among these are the Chinchas of Peru, and the famous Juan Fernandez. In the few lines which we can devote to the islands not already touched on, it is not proposed to make any such sharp definition. Oceanic Islands will accordingly for our purposes be considered simply as islands in the ocean; and perhaps the best arrangement of them will be to consider those to be noticed under the heads of the ocean in which they are found, viz., Indian Ocean, Antarctic, South Atlantic, and North Atlantic Islands.

Islands of the Indian Ocean.

The Sultan of *Zanzibar* may be styled the sovereign of the Swaheli, a negro race speaking a language strongly intermixed with Arabic, and whose religion is a strict form of Mohammedanism. They are the great traders of East Africa, but the rulers of Zanzibar and the governing race are Arabs, whose history we have already noted (pp. 67, 68). The centre of the Sultan's dominions and the seat of his government is the island of Zanzibar, about fifty-five miles long, and separated from the mainland by a strait thirty miles broad. Here is situated the chief town in Seyd Burgash's dominions. Its

* Wolf: "Ein Besuch der Galapagos Inseln" (1879). But in Mr. Wallace's work on "Island Life" (1880), the whole question is so exhaustively treated that it is needless re-discussing the theories regarding their colonisation further than has already been done. Captain Markham has also still more recently added to our knowledge of the Galapagos in *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1880), p. 742.

white houses, as seen from the sea are imposing, but like nearly every other Eastern city the streets are narrow, dirty, and unhealthy, and the population far from either moral or attractive. Still, Zanzibar is a prosperous place. The island is as a rule low, only the interior rising to the height of 400 feet, but the soil is extremely fertile, and under the hot climate which prevails all the year round the crops of cocoa-nuts, mangoes, rice, sugar, manioc, millet, cloves, pepper, copal-gum, and cotton are abundant and lucrative. A large trade is also done in hides, ivory, and other articles, bartered with the tribes into the interior of the mainland, with which the Arabs carry on an extensive merchandise. Slaves were also at one time a staple of Zanzibar, but the Sultan has practically suppressed this traffic; and whatever may be done secretly, it is certain that the open sale of the human chattel has become a something of the past. The population of 300,000 to 400,000 is composed for the most part of the Arabs who are the landowners, the mixed race called Swaheli, the Comoro Islanders, the Banians, or Indian merchants, Lascar or Malay seamen, and African slaves. During the time when the north-east monsoon blows great numbers of traders arrive from India and Arabia; and, in addition to the European Consuls and other whites, there are usually several war-ships and many merchantmen lying in the harbour, which has been so well described by Burton and the many other travellers who have passed out of it for the exploration of the Dark Continent, or by the smaller number who have returned to it after having accomplished their task. The Sultanate also extends for a long distance north and south of the island on the mainland, and even for a considerable distance into the interior. As a matter of fact, the influence of the Arab ruler is recognised only just so far as the guns on his forts can reach—and no further. Of these mainland settlements Melende is the most interesting. Here Vasco da Gama landed in 1498, and here he obtained the pilot which steered his vessel across the Indian Ocean. Its autumn grain-market constitutes its principal source of revenue, though it is still a place of some importance, in spite of its ruinous appearance. Mombasa does a considerable trade with the interior. The ruins of the Portuguese town and fort attest its ancient importance, and it is still of consequence owing to its being the starting-point of many caravan routes for the interior, as well as the landing-place for the mission station of Ribe. Pangani, Bagamoyo, and Dar-es Salaam may be mentioned as other towns, with more or less trade. The latter is noted for its cocoa-nut and maize plantations, belonging to the Sultan and worked by his slaves, and for its trade in palm-oil, gum-copal, and a kind of india-rubber. At the Kilwas end the routes to Nyassa, and until recently were notorious as the termini of the Arab slave-hunters, who have almost depopulated the surrounding regions. Finally, not to mention various other villages, at Tungue the Sultan's possessions, which extended to the coral islet of Warsheikh on the north, here join those of Portugal on the south. None of all these places named has a very large population. The city of Zanzibar is considered to possess about 80,000 people within its bounds, Mombasa, 13,000 to 15,000, and Quiloa, which has not been noticed, 10,000 to 15,000. Altogether, Seyd Bargash claims dominion over a country extending from the tenth degree of south latitude to the second degree of north latitude, though the exact number of his subjects it is impossible even to guess at. Apart from his profits as a trader, the Sultan's revenue from amounts to about £92,000 per annum. He

ZANZIBAR ARAB FAMILY.

has a small army of 1,100 mercenaries, capable of being increased by conscription, and a fleet of three small vessels, including a very handsome yacht. Altogether, he is a promising monarch, and a ruler of more than ordinary ability.

Madagascar is in some respects an even more important island, and one which a few years ago seemed destined to attract greater attention in England than it has obtained of late years. As a missionary field it is absorbing to an important section of the community. But its political and commercial relations are trifling, and to us even more trifling than to the other European nations. For while in Zanzibar "British interests" are paramount, in Madagascar, among an infinitely more docile and tractable people, those of France have of late years been steadily increasing, until at length the French, in addition to a preponderating voice at the Queen's court, own in fee simple ports and islets on several parts of the coast. Madagascar, separated from Africa by the Mozambique Channel, a deep strait 240 miles broad at its narrowest point, is in no degree related to that continent. The inhabitants do not seem to have migrated from the mainland, the ruling race being essentially Malay,* while the "common people" are widely different from those of the opposite African coast. The plants are, however, in some cases the same, and so are the animals, though in a less degree, Madagascar having many quite peculiar to itself. Madagascar is, nevertheless, a continental island. Evidently at one time it was connected with Africa, but got separated from it at a remote epoch. As early as the seventeenth century, the French attempted to establish settlements on it, but abandoned the country owing to its unhealthiness. In like manner, in addition to the Malay race who had arrived here at some pre-historic period, the Arabs had established posts on the north coast. Hence, many of the people are Arab, Swaheli, and—owing to the slave-trade which they introduced—negro. There are also a number of Indian traders, either resident in, or in the habit of frequenting, the ports. The island is nearly 1,000 miles in length, with an average breadth of 260. Its most remarkable physical feature is the lofty granitic plateau,

THE TRAVELLERS' TREE (*Urania speciosa*).

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. II., p. 152.

which rises to the height of from 3,000 to 5,000 feet, and on which again tower peaks and domes of volcanic rock and granite to the height of nearly 9,000 feet. There are also numerous old volcanic cones and craters. Wide plains, owing to the almost entire centre of the island being occupied by this plateau, exist only on the south and west, while the shore—especially on the east—is a low, pestilential, marshy belt, from which the country ascends by wooded terraces towards the capital in the interior, surrounded by old volcanic and grass-covered plateaux, on which pasture great herds of cattle. The soil of the island is generally fertile. But in this respect there are marked contrasts. The side facing Africa is as a rule dry and barren, except along the banks of streams, but the western shore enjoying an abundant rainfall, owing to the direction of the prevailing trade-wind, is thickly inhabited, and dotted with plantations of the usual tropical products. The traveller's tree (*Urania speciosa*) which we have figured (p. 181), is one of the most characteristic indigenous products of this great African island. It derives its familiar name from the leaf stalks accumulating enough of water to quench the thirst of travellers who seek for them in dry weather. The animals of Madagascar are numerous and characteristic. Among the latter may be enumerated lemurs, a kind of nocturnal ape, and various insect-eating mammals. But lions, elephants, and the many large animals which are common on the mainland, are strange to this island, and, from all that is known of its extinct fauna, do not seem ever to have existed on it. The fine forests yield valuable timber and medicinal plants, and among other articles exported are rice, sugar, silk, cotton, cocoa-nuts, indigo, pepper, india-rubber, and various small manufactures, such as jewellery, necklaces, straw hats, &c., but the greater part of its commerce is done with the English colony of Mauritius and the French one of Bourbon.

From the United Kingdom direct, Madagascar only imported last year £16,174 worth of goods, sending us in return little over £10,000 worth. The country is believed to have a population of 3,000,000, and the capital, Antananarivo, containing 80,000 people, lies on the central plateau, though Tanatave, the only other place of importance, is on the eastern coast. At one time the whole island was pagan, and Christianity was virulently persecuted by the last queen but one. The present queen, when she ascended the throne, ordered all the idols to be burnt, and since that date Christianity has proceeded with such rapid strides that at the date of the last report—and it is even behind the day—more than 300,000 people were receiving instruction, while there are on the island over 1,000 congregations, though among the Malagasy there are, especially in that section of the country inhabited by the Sakalava tribes, many barbarians and irrepressible plunderers, at war among themselves and with their neighbours, the Horas and Betsimisaraka, the two other principal subdivisions of the race. "As a people," writes the late Dr. Mullens, "the Malagasy are not far advanced; their almost complete isolation from the world at large has greatly retarded their progress. They are still thoroughly tribal in all their institutions. They are clans in form as well as in spirit. The prince is their chief, officially the owner and lord of all they have and all they are. All obligations are paid by feudal service; officers are remunerated by lands, and by the assignment to them of the services of so many inferior men. No salaries have been paid in money until recently; everything has been paid for in service or by gifts in kind. The hump

of every bullock killed belongs to the queen. Rice, sugar-cane, lambas [a kind of dress], firewood, cattle, stores, all are delivered as part of service." * It ought to be added that silver, copper, corn, coal, and salt are found and patiently worked.

The *Comoro Islands*, four in number, high and volcanic, lie between Madagascar and the mainland. They are inhabited by Arabs under their own Sultan, but Mayotta belongs to the French, who have here the seat of government also for their possessions on and off the shores of Madagascar. These consist of Nossebe, with its little town of Helleville, the Bay of Bali, the Minou Islets, Antombuk Bay, and St. Marie Isle, in which is the port of St. Louis.

Immediately north of Madagascar are the coral isles of *Amirante* and *Seychelles*, covered with date and palm trees, and owned by the British, who govern them by means of a Commissioner under the Governor of Mauritius. They have good harbours, and do some trade with the neighbouring islets, but the inhabitants are chiefly negroes, who have been captured by cruisers and set free.

The *Mascarene* Isles, east of Madagascar, comprise Bourbon or Reunion, Mauritius and Rodriguez. The first, which consists of high volcanic mountains (p. 189) and a plain, is French, and one of their most valued possessions, owing to the great fertility and large exports of coffee, sugar, and spices through its chief port of St. Denis. Mauritius —known as the Ile de France, before it was ceded to the British in 1814—has a population of nearly 400,000, of whom more than one-half are Indian coolies, or labourers, imported to work the plantations. Port Louis, the capital, has a population of 65,000, and in addition to the Seychelles and Rodriguez, which yield the usual products of the Mascarene group, Mauritius has over sixty islets dependent on it. The revenue is in round figures £763,000, the expenditure considerably less, and the public debt about £799,000, not including £354,000 of paper currency in circulation. The whole trade of the island and its dependencies amounts to nearly £6,000,000.†

Antarctic Islands.

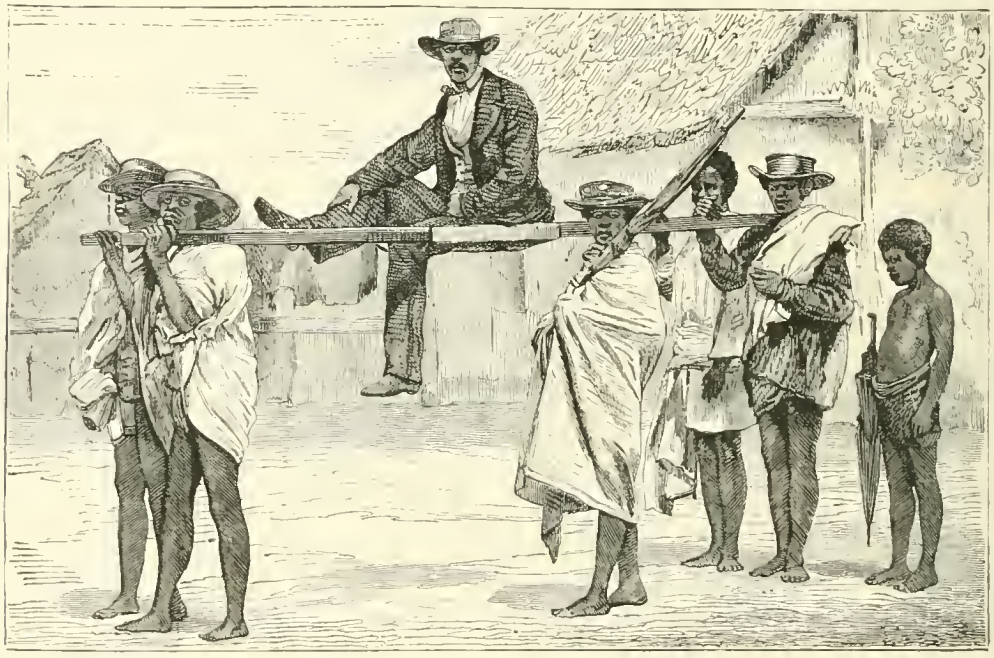
Under the head of Antarctic Islands might be included, possibly very incorrectly, yet without fear of contradiction, the Antarctic continent itself. Victoria Land, Wilkes' Land, Clarie Land, North Land, Sabrina Land, Budd Land, Knox Land, Termination Land, Kemp Land, Enderby Land, Trinity Land, and Graham's Land, which appear on a map of the world, peeping up in fragments about the Antarctic Circle, may be all capes of one great or several extensive continents, or in many cases they may be

* *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XLV. (1875), p. 152; "Twelve Months in Madagascar" (1876); Sibree: "The Great African Island" (1879), and *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1879), p. 646.

† The natural history aspects of these islands will be found treated in numerous works, references to which may be found, with a summary of the whole, in Mr. Wallace's "Geographical Distribution of Animals" (1876), and "Island Life" (1880), to which the reader is referred.

islands of greater or less extent. The South Polar region is still one of the *terræ incognitæ* of the world. The mighty ice barrier extends much farther north than the corresponding barriers do south in the North Polar Basin. Hence the navigators, who at wide intervals have essayed to penetrate it, have been able only to catch glimpses of this hidden world. Sir James Clark Ross saw the volcanoes "Erebus" and "Terror" sending forth their flames luridly over the snowy world below. But how far it stretches, what is the nature of the continent or continental islands, we do not know, except that the Antarctic regions seem far barer of life than any part of the Arctic regions on which the navigator has as yet lit.

The Antarctic regions offer numerous problems to be solved, but hitherto, owing



TRAVELLING IN MADAGASCAR.

to many causes, the chief of which is their long distance from Europe, the voyages thither have been few and of brief duration. No doubt, since the day when Sir James Ross made his famous expedition in that direction, great colonies have sprung up in the near vicinity of this unknown land. But the South African and Australasian dependencies are singularly prosaic. They care little for geography, unless it promise to yield something very practical, and "practical" in the colonial vocabulary is usually understood as a euphuism for money. Moreover, with much of their own "back country" still unexplored, the colonies have not as yet thought fit to expend any superfluous energy in searching for the secrets of the South Pole. Though Dirk Cherrits, as early as 1599, stumbled on the high snowy land now known as the South Shetlands, and some of the neighbouring islets, long afterwards the haunts of the fur-sealers, it was not until the year 1774-75 that the Antarctic Circle was crossed

in the voyage of the famous Captain Cook. He was bent on solving the much-debated problem, "whether the unexplored part of the Southern hemisphere be only an immense mass of water, or contain another continent." This question he believed, erroneously, we think, to have been settled in the negative, though the subsequent voyages of Bellinghausen, Weddell, Biscoe, Balleny, and Dumont D'Urville were considered to have confirmed this conclusion. Lieut. Wilkes, of the United States

NATIVES OF THE ISLAND OF REUNION.

Navy, who twenty-two years later attained another form of notoriety, as the hero of the *San Jacinto* "outrage," was the first to unsettle belief on this point. As, however, it was proved that Wilkes' "Antarctic continent" is mainly imaginary, Sir James Ross having a year later sailed over two of the positions assigned to it, unmerited obloquy has been heaped on all of the American's narrative. Though Ross disproved the existence of land in the place assigned to it by Wilkes, he nevertheless showed that within the great ice-barrier of the South there exists an extensive region (Victoria Land), containing mountains towering to 14,000 feet, and one of which, Mount Erebus, 12,360 feet high, is an active volcano. In 1845, the *Pagoda* visited the region, but did not

succeed in penetrating to lat. 71° 56′, where the ice stopped Ross; while the voyage of the *Challenger* in 1873 added but little to our previous knowledge of this mysterious, but seemingly unapproachable, Southern land.

At present (February, 1881) a scheme is on foot in Italy for despatching an expedition to these little-known parts. It is to be under the command of Lieut. Bove, who shared in the accomplishment of the North East Passage under Nordenskjöld in the years 1878-79; and as the cost is calculated at only £24,000, the chances are that it will start in the ensuing summer, so as to arrive on the scene of action at the close of the Southern winter. We know so little about the Antarctic continent that it would be unsafe to speculate on what may be yet disinterred from its volcanic soil. It is also, all strictly scientific problems being left out of account, just possible that the fur-seals once so common on the more northern Antarctic Islands may have retreated to the south, or that among the broken floes the Antarctic right whale, now very scarce, may be found revelling in fancied security from its old foes. Undoubtedly a morning's work among the sea-elephants would be profitable amusement for the Italians; and it is certain that the news of whales would speedily bring on the scene adventurers who fear "not the spirit that dwelleth in the land of ice and snow." It would, however, be well not to be too sanguine as to seal-hunting paying the cost of the voyage, as the fur-seal, unlike its less valued Arctic cousin, does not affect very high latitudes. It does not, for instance, haunt the Arctic shores of Behring Strait, and it may therefore be found that Heard or McDonald's Islands are about its southern range in any great numbers. The purely scientific problems awaiting solution are also not few or unimportant. It would appear from an article by Dr. Carpenter, in a number of the *Nineteenth Century* (1880), that this distinguished naturalist and physical geographer is of opinion that the southern icebergs differ entirely from those of the north, "these last being now universally regarded as glaciers which have descended the seaward valleys of Greenland and Labrador, and have floated away when no longer supported by a solid base." The icebergs of the Antarctic are, on the contrary, "for the most part detached portions of a vast *ice-sheet*, covering a land surface—either continuous or broken up into an archipelago of islands—which occupies the principal part of the vast circumpolar area, estimated at about four and a half millions of square miles, or nearly double the area of Australia. Of this ice-sheet the edge forms the great southern 'ice-barrier' which presents itself, wherever it has been approached sufficiently near to be distinctly visible, as a continuous ice-cliff, rising from 200 to 250 feet above the sea-level." In regard to this statement, it is proper to remark that very few icebergs are the offspring of glaciers proper—the so-called glaciers of Greenland being the mere over-pourings of this vast "inland ice" which covers the whole of the Greenland continent—the little "nunataks" of Dalager and Jensen* perhaps excepted. These "glaciers," the ends of which break off by the buoyancy of the sea in the form of icebergs, are the only part of the inland ice seen by the

* The latter were discovered in the summer of 1878 ("Meddelelser om Grönland" 1879), but they do not alter the general conclusions arrived at in Vol. I., p. 59, and in "Arctic Papers of the Royal Geographical Society" (1875).

ordinary voyager sailing along the Greenland shores, and their breadth and size, as has been repeatedly pointed out, vary according to the breadth and length of the "outskirting" valleys through which they flow. If it is broad, the "glacier" is broad, as in the case of the Great Glacier of Humboldt, which presents an ice face of forty miles in length to the sea. If it is narrow, the size of the berg to be broken off will be proportionately small. Even the bergs of Spitzbergen, and according to the observations of Mr. Leigh Smith those of Franz Josef's Land,* also originate in miniature inland seas, or in ice caps on the larger islands. In brief, the Antarctic ice-sheet does not differ materially from that of the north, except in size, and in that the bergs given off by it are flat like those of Franz Josef's Land, and the erroneous statements to the contrary are due to the fact that none of the *Challenger* staff was acquainted with the "inland ice" of Greenland.

A vessel sailing from England to Australia might, if not particular as to time and tacking, touch at some of the loneliest spots in the whole world. Ascension, St. Helena, Tristan da Cunha, Prince Edward's and Marion Isles, the Crozets, Kerguelen, Amsterdam Isle, as well as the Heard and Macdonald's Isles would be among the solitary dots in mid-ocean which might be visited. But with the exception of the first three, few of these islets are ever heard of unless when a ship is wrecked on them, and the castaways are fortunate enough to return to tell their tale. Ascension and St. Helena are British colonies, after a fashion, and on Tristan there is an isolated settlement of kingless people whose lot we shall presently have occasion to notice. Although any stray crew in trouble would be received at Tristan with every kindness, yet on one of the islands of the group two Germans passed eighteen months' solitary existence, being only visited twice in the whole period of their stay. But the other islets are uninhabited, and rank among the most desolate places which the seaman has any knowledge of. However, the Crozets have several times during the last few years attracted notice. On the 1st of July, 1875, an emigrant ship, the *Strathmore*, was wrecked on one of them, and forty-four of the passengers, after living there for several months, were rescued by the American whaler *Phœnix*. Some of these South Antarctic islands are visited by sealers and fishermen for a few months in the year,† but most of them are perfectly uninhabited, except by rabbits, penguins, seals, and similar animals. Dreary in the extreme are all of them at any time of the year, and especially during winter, when the wild Polar blasts sweep over them. Wooded vegetation they scarcely possess, except a clump or two of bushes in the more sheltered parts. Long tussock grass, bog, and rocks are what appear on the surface. St. Paul's and Kerguelen are dotted with the rude huts of the sea-elephant hunters, and the same may be said of the other islets in its vicinity. St. Paul's is noted as the scene of the wreck of H.M.S. *Megæra*, and on Amsterdam Island, when H.M.S. *Pearl* visited it in 1873, a house containing female clothing and other articles was found. In 1880, H.M.S. *Raleigh* visited it, and reported that it seems to be a regular station for fishermen. There were a few shrubs scattered over it,

* *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, March, 1881.

† For an account of these see Vol. II., p. 268.

but "sedge" seemed the main vegetation. Who were the solitaries who had inhabited this lodge in a vast wilderness of wintry waters has never yet been ascertained. On Kerguelen Island the celebrated "cabbage," which takes its popular name from this place, although it has been found in several of the neighbouring isles, grows in abundance. It is the *Pringlea antiscorbutica* of botanists, and is valuable for the qualities indicated by its name. It tastes not unlike turnip-tops. Castaways have little to fear from starvation on the Crozets and the neighbouring islands. Apart from the fact that the Admiralty has deposited a store of provisions on Hog Island in the former group—which *may* possibly be left untouched by the sealers—the birds and rabbits on them will afford abundance of food. The *Strathmore's* people fared sumptuously, and though only ten out of the forty-seven people who in 1846 landed on the Marions from the *Richard Dart* survived, the rest did not die of starvation, for they had abundance of sea-fowl and the Kerguelen Island cabbage to subsist on. But as Captain Lindsay Brine, who examined the group in 1875, has pointed out, there is not the slightest necessity for vessels bound to New Zealand going so far south as these "isles of winter."

South Atlantic Islands.

Passing over such isolated semi-Antarctic rocks as Bouvet, the Sandwich group—of course to be distinguished from the Pacific isles of the same name, South Georgia, South Orkneys, Elephant Isle, and Gough Island—we come to one of infinitely greater importance. This is *Tristan da Cunha*. Though in its main features rather desolate it is a much more interesting spot than any in its dreary latitudes. Discovered by the Portuguese mariner whose name it bears, it has obtained a place on our maps for 300 years, and for nearly a century it has been more or less inhabited. Far in the middle of the South Atlantic—nearly on a line between the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn, 1,500 miles from either point, and 1,300 miles south of St. Helena, the nearest land—Tristan may be accurately enough styled the most isolated spot of peopled land on the face of the globe. Pitcairn, Lord Howe Island (Vol. IV., p. 81), and the Bonins (Vol. IV., pp. 44, 303), as well as some of the South Sea group, on which the roving British mariner has taken up his residence, are indeed "far from the madding crowd." But Tristan, about which we hear so little, is more lonely still. The group of which it forms the chief member is in reality composed of three islands—Tristan da Cunha, Inaccessible, about eighteen miles from it, and Nightingale, twenty miles south of the main one. But though the two smaller islets are occasionally visited, Tristan is the only one which has a permanent population. About the close of last century it seems to have been the haunt of American sealers, who in a few months could here load up their vessels with skins and oil. By the year 1811 three Americans had settled on the island, and one of them went so far as to declare himself its sovereign proprietor. At that date the pigs and goats set free by former visitors had greatly increased, and about fifty acres of ground were under cultivation, with various flourishing crops, including coffee-trees and sugar-canes obtained from Rio de Janeiro. But for some unexplained reason the settlement

was abandoned, and until the English took possession of the island in 1817 they were again uninhabited by bipeds. In the year mentioned troops were landed here and on Ascension in order to keep watch and ward over Napoleon at St. Helena. Batteries were erected and houses built, but in little more than a year the troops were withdrawn, as it was found that the friends of the banished Corsican were not so active as to necessitate such elaborate precautions against his escape. However, a cor-

VOLCANO IN THE ISLAND OF REUNION.

poral of Artillery named Glasse, with his wife and two soldiers, obtained permission to remain, and from that date the island has never been without inhabitants. In 1823 the settlers numbered seventeen; in 1829 Captain Morrell mentions twenty-seven "families" as living on the island, though we presume he meant individuals, for in 1836 there were only forty-two colonists in all. In 1852 these had increased to eighty-five, including a chaplain sent out by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel; but in 1857, when the clergyman left, forty-seven of the inhabitants deserted their old home for the Cape of Good Hope, the island being no longer such a lucrative trade "pitch" as formerly. The seals had been much thinned off, and the ships which called were

fewer, while the profits had to be divided among more pockets than in the earlier days of the colony.

At the date we speak of, the female portion of the colony were much in the majority. Some of the young men had left, while others, as is the custom still, were in the habit of shipping as "hands" on board South Sea sealers and whalers. In 1857, however, the deserters from the island were chiefly young women, and at that period a somewhat desponding view was taken of its future. The chaplain even recommended that it should be abandoned. But this was not the view of the Tristaners themselves, for when the Duke of Edinburgh visited the island in 1867, he found the colonists numbering eighty-six, and though without any formal laws, they had installed Peter Green, one of the oldest inhabitants, who had married "Governor" Glasse's daughter, as their chief magistrate and adviser. This position Green, a hale old man of seventy-four, still retains; and as he has been blessed with a family of sixteen, there is no likelihood of the gubernatorial line becoming extinct. When the *Challenger* visited it in 1873, Sir Wyville Thomson* tells us that there were eighty-four souls in fifteen families on the island, most of those who had left having returned, and that the females were still slightly in the majority. Then, as now, most of the settlers were in some way connected with the Cape of Good Hope or St. Helena, whence some of them had come, and with the exception of a few Americans—the jetsam and flotsam of whalers—the greater number of the Tristaners had a considerable dash of black blood in them. The young men were handsome and well formed, and the girls are especially noted as black-eyed brunettes of particularly nimble movements, and whose capacity for making a bargain seemed in no way affected by their ignorance of the struggle for existence. Again, in 1875 Captain Digby, of H.M.S. *Sappho,* visited the island and reported the inhabitants to number eighty-five. In February, 1879, Captain East found them to be 109, the largest population yet recorded, though the soil is capable of supporting double the present population. The colonists were in good health, and though they complain of the loss of their old trade with the sealers, and the want of a schoolmaster and chaplain, it does not seem that either their morals or intelligence had suffered from the absence of these officials. They are still as keen after money as ever, and though hospitable to shipwrecked seamen, do not at all resent being made objects of commiseration owing to their loneliness and supposed desolate condition. In reality, they are there of their own choice, and could leave at once did the place not suit them. They are not castaways, like the descendants of the mutineers on Pitcairn (Vol. IV., p. 73), but stay on the island simply and solely to make money, or, what to them is the same thing, an "easy living." The climate is excellent, and no one on Tristan need ever have an anxious thought as to what he should eat or wherewithal he should be clothed. The settlers possess 500 head of cattle, and as many sheep, grazing on the rank tussock grass, plenty of pigs, geese, ducks, and fowls, while their butter, cheese, eggs, vegetables, and milk find a ready and profitable sale among the crews of the ten or twelve ships calling yearly. They go to the neighbouring islets to kill seals visiting their shores, which also swarm with penguins and other antarctic birds, and they have lately opened up a trade in cattle with St. Helena.

* "Voyage of the *Challenger*," Vol. II., p. 189.

The goats, which once existed in great numbers, have evidently been killed off, and the rabbits have, we think to the islanders' eventual benefit, been exterminated by the wild cats; though how, with such a plethora of the "feline species," corn-growing has had to be abandoned owing to the "multitude of mice and vermin destroying the crops," we fail to understand. At all events, about twenty acres under potatoes are the only cultivated ground nowadays. We hear nothing of coffee or sugar having been attempted, and the few vines on the island are neglected, though they could yield a large quantity of grapes if properly cultivated.

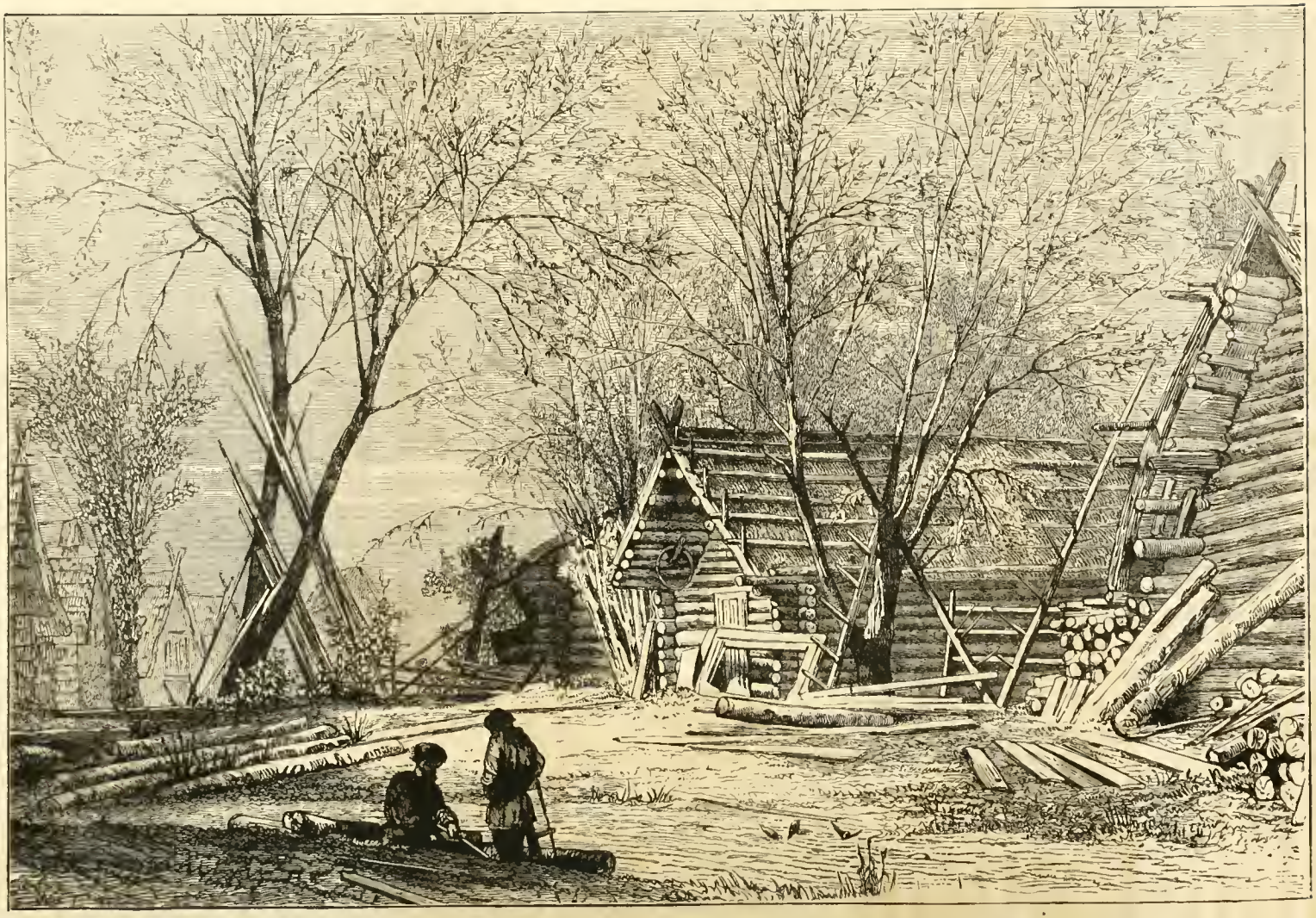
What is to be done with these islanders? We think every one will agree with Captain East that the best thing to do is to leave them alone. They could not be much improved by red tape, and might run the chance of being spoiled by being meddled with by politicians or being made more of than is good for them by fussy philanthropists. Tristan is included in the See of St. Helena, and the Bishop has long had at his disposal £100 per annum as the salary of an island chaplain. But though the islanders are willing to provide food and house-room for a clergyman, we understand that for the last twenty-four years it has been found impossible to get any one to succeed the Rev. Mr. Taylor. Otherwise, their present patriarchal government is good enough, and even the advent of an educated man amongst them, unless he happened to be of a very exceptional character—which owing to various circumstances would not likely be the case—Sir Wyville Thomson inclines to think, would not be an undiluted blessing. At present the people are very moral, and sufficiently educated for all their needs. They are equal in every respect, and it would, therefore, be a grievous mistake to run the risk of introducing among them class bitterness, or the sectarian squabbles of the world which they are in, but not of. Lord Carnarvon had, in 1875, some idea of annexing the island to the Cape, and giving Peter Green magisterial powers such as are possessed by one or two of the settlers on Norfolk Island—another Crusoe colony placed under similar conditions. But Captain Bosanquet, of H.M.S. *Diamond*, whose advice was asked, strongly recommended that no such steps should be taken. The islanders themselves wish no change, though no doubt Lord Carnarvon's proposal to divide £200 worth of useful presents among them was a highly popular clause in the despatch of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Indeed, a potentiality for pauperism Sir Wyville Thomson considers the weak side of the Tristaners, while the way they treated the German brothers Stoltenhoff,* who passed nearly two years in voluntary exile on Inaccessible Island, does not redound to the credit of Peter Green's fellow-citizens. What they require, and what we require, is an indisputable guarantee that Tristan, Lord Howe Island, Pitcairn, the Crozets, and Amsterdam Island are really British territory. Otherwise trouble may eventually ensue.

St. Helena being a recognised British colony, to which, however, no emigrants ever come, is of greater importance than Tristan da Cunha, and as the place of exile in which Napoleon Bonaparte passed the last years of his life, it must always possess a

* The extremely interesting narrative of these German Crusoes may be found in the various narratives of the *Challenger's* cruise, by Sir Wyville Thomson, Mr. Spry, Dr. Wilde, Lord George Campbell, and Mr. Mosely.

historical interest. Actually, however, it is year by year getting more out of the world's way, and of less and less importance. Discovered by Juan de Nova Castella on St. Helena's Day in 1501, it remained only known to the Portuguese until 1588, when the English navigator Cavendish sighted it. The Dutch were its first colonists (for it does not seem ever to have had any aborigines), and held it until 1673, when it was captured by the English. After this, with the exception of the six years during which it acted as the prison of Napoleon Bonaparte, it was ruled by the East India Company. But in 1833 its government was assumed directly by the Colonial Office. Its position is extremely isolated. Situated nearly in the middle of the South Atlantic, it is over 1,100 miles from the coast of Africa and 1,800 from South America. The structure is entirely volcanic, and for the most part it is very mountainous and rugged, some of the precipices rising to the height of 2,700 feet above the sea. It is about ten miles and a half in length and six miles and a half in breadth, the entire area which it encloses being about forty-seven square miles. An ancient crater, four miles across, is open on the south side, and its entire aspect is that of an island which has been built up from the depth of the sea, and has never been connected with any other land. The northern rim of the great crater forms "the highest and central ridge of the islands," but there are many other hills and peaks, more than 2,000 feet in height, and a great portion of the interior is occupied by a rugged plateau rising to an elevation of from 1,500 to 2,000 feet. When first discovered the island was everywhere covered with dense forest, the trees even overhanging the precipices until their foliage was splashed by the Atlantic foam. This vegetation has now been almost entirely destroyed, and the appearance of the country, now so bleak and bare, would scarcely lead any one to believe that 380 years ago it was so green and fertile. Denuded of trees, the rich volcanic soil has been swept off the slopes by the heavy tropical rains, until vast expanses of rock are bared to their very bases. This lamentable destruction was caused first by the goats, which at one period of the island's history existed in enormous numbers, aided by man, who, to save trouble, wasted vast numbers of red-wood and ebony trees for the sake of their bark, and even used the valuable wood of the former to burn lime for building fortifications.* Of the plants, about seventy-six are native, and of these fifty are absolutely peculiar to the island. The rest of the vegetation has been introduced by man, and in some cases has exterminated the aboriginal species. Indeed, the visitor, on first landing, unless he be a practised botanist, will only notice the English broom, furze, brambles, willows, and poplars, or common Australian, Cape, and American weeds which everywhere run wild in great profusion. The island prosperity is now a something of the past. Steam has no longer made it essential for ships on their way to or from India to call in here for water and fresh stores, and the Suez Canal has still further hastened the decay of St. Helena. However, there is some trade done. About 700 ships every year visit Jamestown, the capital, on St. James's Bay, and though the place is said to be falling a prey to the white ants, its excellent climate, good water, and old associations render it a

* Mellis: "St. Helena: a Physical, Historical, and Topographical Description," &c. (1875).



A RUSSIAN VILLAGE ON THE BANKS OF THE VOLGA.

pleasant if retired place of abode. There are several charming residences in the island, and Longwood House, which Napoleon inhabited, is still a show place for every visitor. Many of the 6,500 people on the island is tinctured with various shades of black, and the garrison of 200 men is in like manner largely mixed with men whose faces bespeak a not very remote relationship either to India

VIEW OF ST. HELENA (JAMESTOWN, AND THE LADDER OF 600 STEPS UP LADDER HILL: FROM MUNDEN'S BATTERY).

or to Africa. The revenue is about £14,000, the expenditure less, and the public debt under £12,000.

The *Island of Ascension*, 850 miles distant, is the nearest land to St. Helena. It is simply one huge cinder in the sea, being destitute of vegetation and water, except the patch of green on the highest point, and the "drips" which at favourable seasons retain a little of the rain which falls into them. The island cannot be called a colony; it is simply the station for a small garrison, or rather for the crew of a war-ship.

Officially it is known as "the *Flora* tender," H.M.S. *Flora* having at one time been stationed here, and is ruled after the discipline of a war-ship. The only people on the island are sailors and marines, and the language, ways of life, and ideas all smack of the quarter-deck and the galley. Except turtle, the island supplies nothing edible, and the greater part of the water used has to be distilled. Provisions come from St. Helena. When clothes are sent to be washed, the water must be sent with them. Potatoes cost 4d. per lb., cabbages are knocked down at auction at 1s. 6d. apiece, milk cannot be got, but turtle soup is to be had for the asking, should water not be too scarce to permit of its concoction. The island was discovered by Juan de Nova, the Portuguese, on Ascension Day, 1501, but was not coveted by any one until, in 1815, the English, for the better guardianship of the captive of St. Helena, took possession of it. Its area is about thirty-five square miles, and the height of Green Mountain, in the centre, 2,870 feet. The population varies; sometimes they fall to twenty-seven, but rarely exceed 200. Indeed, it is difficult to see what use the "cinder" is to us. As a West African sanatorium either Tristan da Cunha or St. Helena would be better, at a much less cost than £40,000 per annum, while its advantages as a coaling station cannot be said to be worth what we pay for it as rent.*

North Atlantic Islands.

Due west of Cape Verd, in Africa, lie the islands of the same name, fourteen in number, though only ten are inhabited. All of them are volcanic, and though the name and position of the group would suggest verdure, with the exception of St. Jago, rising to the height of 1,500 feet, none of them are either attractive or very fertile. St. Vincent's, which is a great coaling *depôt*, is described as utterly barren, and more like a volcanic crater than anything else. The group belongs to Portugal, but if one may judge from the appearance of Porta Praya and the other towns, the glory of the Isles of the Green Cape has long ago vanished. The population is mostly composed of negroes and mulattoes, and in the official lists is set down at 99,000; but as it is often decimated by epidemics, the figures may have varied since the time the census was last taken. Some of the islets yield considerable crops, others are utterly barren, and in Sal and Boã-Vista there is some salt collected from the plains, on which it lies. At one time the group was infested by pirates, who plundered the ill-fortified sea-coast towns. Hence the custom of the inhabitants building themselves country houses on the mountains. These retreats, no longer required for their original purposes, are now found very convenient as sanataria during the prevalence of fever or other epidemics. Cattle-feeding forms the principal occupation of the islanders, but they export, in addition to hides, beef for passing ships, coral, salt, coffee, maize, kidney-beans, sugar, and spirits.†

The *Canary Islands* lie at a shorter distance from the African shore. They at present belong to Spain, but were well known to the ancients under the name of the "Fortunate

* Mrs. Gill: "Six Months in Ascension" (1878).

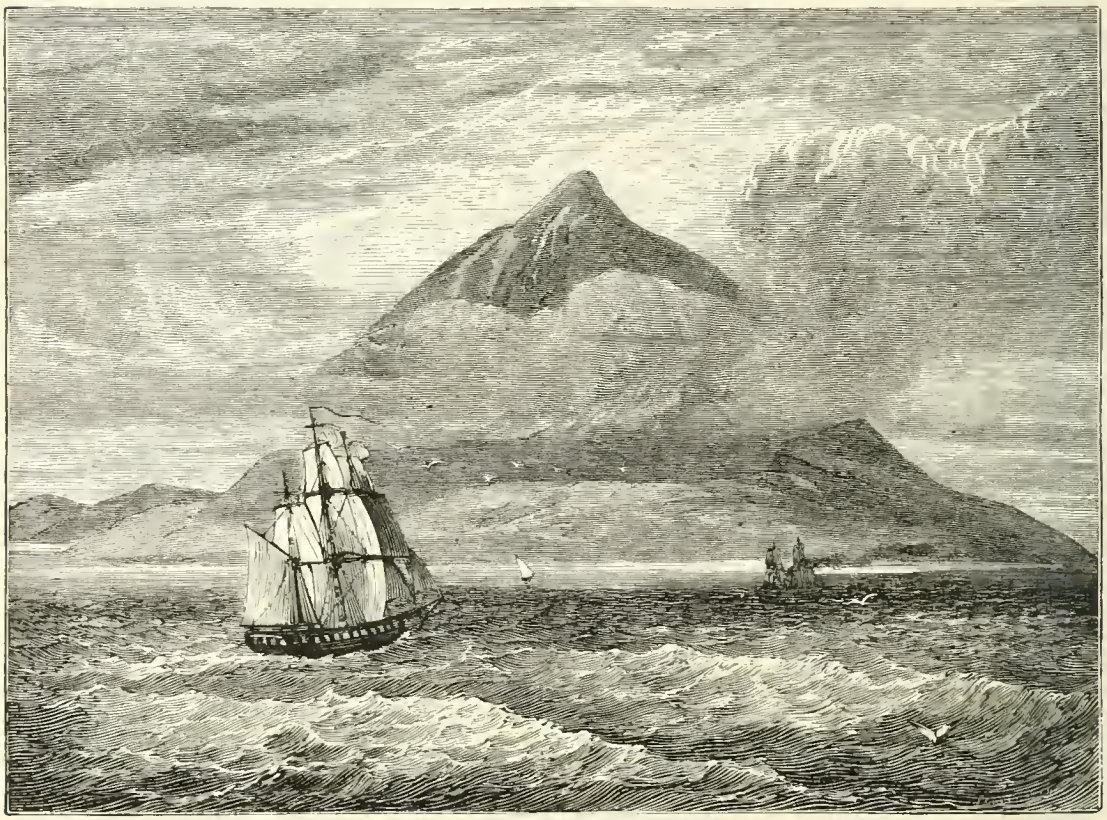
† Varnhagen: "Corografia Cabo-Verdiana" (1845); Schmidt: "Beiträge zur Flora der Cap-Verdischen Inseln" (1852), in which 424 wild flowering plants are described, besides fourteen ferns, all closely resembling those of the neighbouring cost of Africa, but with a marked tropical character.

Isles," owing to their fine equable climate. All of the seven islands are of volcanic origin, and on Teneriffe is the well-known peak of the same name, which towers to the height of 12,180 feet (p. 196). The original inhabitants of the Canaries were the Guanches, a race who have long ago become exterminated, or who, conforming to Spanish customs, intermarried with the conqueror, and became altogether lost as a distinct people. Who they were is not known with any certainty, but the chances are that they were not aborigines from the African continent, but most probably emigrants of Vandal or Teutonic origin, who had been settled in Barbary and got intermixed more or less with the natives. This is the opinion of Von Löher, one of the most modern investigators of the question. The present inhabitants do not differ much from those of Spain, except in being a little darker. They are sober, illiterate, quick, superstitious, faithless, and inveterate gamblers. Cattle-breeding, the cultivation of various crops suited to the climate, the preparation of an indifferent wine—which owing to bad management has sadly fallen off from its old reputation, and is accounted much inferior to that of Madeira—the breeding of the cochineal insect, fruit-growing, &c., are the chief occupations of the inhabitants. The Canaries are accounted by Spain not colonies but an integral part of the province of Andalusia. The islands of Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, and Gran Canaria, are classed among the eastern division; those of Teneriffe, Gomera, Palma, and Ferro, from which the old seamen used to calculate longitude, in the western group. Las Palmas, Orotava, and Santa Cruz de Santiago are the principal towns. In 1877 the Canaries were found to have a population of 280,388,* but on the whole Mr. Yates Johnson considers that the islands are not progressing rapidly, though, like all other writers, he praises their superb climate, which is rarely disturbed by hurricanes. However, it is said that, in 1814, the fields of Fuerteventura were covered by locusts to the depth of four feet!

Madeira, with its satellite of Porto Santo, which, as it rises out of the sea looks like two islands, and the rocky Desertas, lie about 360 miles from the coast of Morocco, and of all the Portuguese insular possessions are the most familiar to the outside world. Its equable climate, its once famous wines, and its picturesque scenery attract to it thousands of visitors, who hasten thither to escape the angry English winters. Into Funchal, its principal town, flock long processions of wan-faced invalids, hoping, and sometimes finding, that its famed air will heal their wasting lungs, and bring back the colour to their fading cheeks. Every day during the winter the shady places of the town are filled with gatherings of these invalids, many of them people of wealth, and all of means, who compare their woes, and it is said take an absolute pleasure in exaggerating the ills they have, and even claiming those which they are not heir to. Consumption is the fashionable disease of Madeira, and as all reputations are purely local, the merely languid hypochondriac is unhappy should some neighbour have a phthisical distinction which she herself does not possess. Madeira has been described in a score of volumes, and as no spot of the same size out of Europe contains so many leisured people, its chronicles, natural

* "Resultados generales del Censo de Poblacion de España" (1879); Ogier: "The Fortunate Isles" (1871); Piazzi-Smyth: "Teneriffe: an Astronomer's Experiment" (1868); Von Buch: "Description des Isles Canaries" (1803); Bory de Saint Vincent: "Les Isles Fortunées" (1825), etc.

history, and scenery have been very fully elaborated. But, like many other fashionable haunts, it is the opinion of Mr. Mitchinson, a visitor of wide experience, that it has been much over-praised. "The island is somewhat picturesque, but of little grandeur. The hills from a distance present the appearance of detached cones, not unlike a meadow where new-mown grass has been raked into heaps." Funchal is one of the most somnolent towns in the world. "All life here," writes the same traveller, "is half dreary or sleepy apathy—no noise, no quarrels, no amusements, nor anything to distract the



THE PEAK OF TENERIFFE, CANARY ISLANDS.

mind. Until a late hour in the morning scarcely any one is to be seen in the streets or on the beach; the shops are closed, industry and trade seem suspended." If the place is healthy, it is not owing to the perfect sanitary regulations of the town. It is evil-smelling, odorous with the decay of animal and vegetable matter, the pools green and stagnant, and even the lovely gardens, with their wealth of stephanotis, passion-flowers, hibiscus, bananas, stretilzias, heliotropes, geraniums, pelargoniums, palms, and mimosas are infested by clouds of mosquitoes. In every street, coughing, consumptive-looking people are met. There is, indeed, an "English cemetery" for their last needs, and the residents lament that though the reputation of their island insures them relays of strangers, the visitors are very evanescent: no sooner do they wax intimate than death takes them away. Sleighs

drawn by oxen are the common carriages of the place, and excursions to the summit of the Mount, to look out on the Atlantic or on the fairy world at their feet, form the favourite amusement of the languid idlers. The views from the Curral are particularly fine, and altogether the island is a pleasant one. The population, which numbered by the last census 132,221, are a sober, kindly people, and as industrious as the Portuguese peasants usually are. The soil is not generally fertile. Bare rocks predominate, and the pasturage, on which a few sheep and goats subsist, are often little patches

VIEW OF FUNCHAL, MADEIRA.

among broken stones and thick impenetrable woods. The vineyards once so famous have now greatly fallen from their former fame. They require very hard work to keep in order; and of late years comparatively little "madeira" has been exported to Europe. Much of the wine which claims to be that vintage is not the produce of the island, and, indeed, were the whole country to be covered with vines, it would be utterly impossible for all that is drunk under the name of "madeira" to be expressed from their produce. It is even doubtful whether the Madeira climate has all the curative properties which has been so long ascribed to it. The fresh air and exercise have perhaps as much to do with the restored health of the invalid as any healing influences which it possesses.

The *Desertas*, as the name signifies, are barren rocks, to which the fishermen repair for collecting the dye lichen known as orchilla; and *Santo* is less remarkable for any riches in itself than for the fact that on the shores of the islet Columbus picked up the *débris* which led him to believe that there was another continent far to the westward.

The *Azores* consist of a cluster of nine high volcanic isles, 800 miles distant from Portugal, to which they belong. Like Madeira, they are inhabited by a population of Portuguese, largely tinctured with negro and Moorish blood, and numbering 264,352 by the census of 1878. St. Michaels, the largest of them, is 200 square miles in area, and from its capital, Ponta Delgada, vast quantities of oranges and pineapples are exported for the London market. The group throughout is very fertile, though the incessant gales which sweep over them render their shores the terror of traders. At one time much sugar was produced, but this business has now declined in favour of the cultivation of fruits and the manufacture of wine, which will very favourably compare with that of Madeira. Fayal, San Miguèl, Terceira, San Jorge, Pico, Grasiosa, Flores, and Santa Maria are also good islands, and altogether the visitors who now flock to Madeira might do worse than give the equally pleasant and much cheaper Azores a trial. From a zoological point of view the islands are remarkable for the absence of all terrestrial vertebrate animals, there being no snake, lizard, frog, fresh-water fish, or mammals indigenous to any of the islands—though on Madeira and Teneriffe there is a small lizard — but on all of them there are abundance of birds and insects, and one small European bat, which, like the other winged animals named, might have reached them by flight from Portugal, 900, or Madeira, 550 miles away.*

CHAPTER X.

EUROPE: ITS GENERAL FEATURES.

SAILING eastward from the Azores, those "Islands of the Blest" which the ancients pictured as lying on the horizon, enveloped in a sea of sensual delights, we soon arrive at the "Pillars of Hercules," the "Norfa's Sound" of the Vikings, or the Strait of Gibraltar in the more prosaic language of modern geographers. At the Canaries we were in Europe politically, for these islands are outliers of a Spanish province; but no sooner do we sail between the British fortress of Gibraltar on the south, and the Moorish port of Tangiers—once also an English stronghold—on the other, than we

* Godman: "Natural History of the Azores, or Western Islands" (1870); Wallace: "Island Life" (1880), p. 240; Hartung: "Die Azoren" (1860); Adanson: "History of the Azores" (1813); Totten's translation of Kerhallet's "Description de l'Archipelago des Açores" (1874); and the works of Aldama-Ayla, La Teillais, Pery, and Vogel.

feel that we are getting "home again"—that we are really in Europe, among familiar men and the places whose names have got worn smooth in the current of the world's chronicles. In the inland sea known as the Mediterranean we are surrounded by the nations to whom the greatest portion of the world owes its civilisation and religion. Here is Spain, and that westerly strip of it facing the Atlantic known as the kingdom of Portugal, which discovered more than half of the world, and aided directly or indirectly in the colonisation of the other half. Close by is France, which has played in the past, and plays still, such an important part in determining the fate of nations, and the turn which their manners, morals, and intellectual developments will take. In the peninsula of Italy centred for ages the conquerors of the world, and the colonists to whom the lands mentioned owe their civilisation and institutions. At the tip of the Turkish Peninsula has gathered a nation — or the remnants of one — whose genius once illumined all the surrounding regions, whose armies reached India, and of whose art, literature, and philosophy we are still reaping the benefit. This is Greece and the isles of Greece, whose ancient territory is in great part occupied by an alien Asiatic race who have yielded nothing to European culture, and who in four centuries have remained but a military camp of Asiatic hordes, thinly veneered over with Frankish polish, which, while it has not altered their nature, has deteriorated their ancient warlike qualities. On the other side of the Mediterranean lies Africa, once the scene of stirring events in Greek and Roman history, and Palestine, from which the greater part of Europe and America derives its religious beliefs. The vast area of middle Europe has not taken such an important share in moulding the destinies of men, though her people, by emigrating across the Atlantic, are conveying the ideas and the habits of the Old World to be transplanted in the New. Northern Europe once on a time served to the countries south of it the same function which Greece and Rome did in their palmy days. They supplied the conquerors and the colonists of the fertile lands of England and Normandy; and when the day of Rome was over, from the barbarous north poured south the vigorous warriors who sealed her doom, just as from Asia rushed in the Asiatic tribesmen who had for long been watching the growing decrepitude of the Byzantine Greeks, whose capital is the city now known as Constantinople, or Stamboul. The Norsemen's day as conquerors is past: their era of literary victories has come. In no nation of the same size is there so much attention devoted to polite literature, art, and science as in Denmark and Sweden; while, considering everything, the degree of civilisation to which the people of the Scandinavian peninsula and islands have attained is remarkable. In remote Iceland, which has preserved the old tongue in its purity, there is a culture of a high grade, while in ancient times, when the rest of Europe was almost entirely crushed by barbarous sovereigns and plundering warriors, the saga men and the scalds kept alive the light of learning in the chilly island of the North Sea. In their colonising expeditions the Scandinavians reached Greenland, and there is every reason to believe even discovered the eastern shores of North America.

Europe it is the fashion of late years to characterise as a peninsula of Asia. Geographically, this would perhaps not be incorrect. Its line of junction with the rest of the Old World is by the Ural Range and the Caucasus, and the line immediately north

MAP OF EUROPE.

and south of them. In part of the country between the Urals and the Caspian the River Ural is considered to form the boundary. But in reality the country on either side of it is identical in appearance and population, while the Russian Government are unwilling even to recognise the gradually rising and falling range between their European and Asiatic Governments as a dividing line at all.

Europe is also a colony of Asia. But as one of the most recent writers on

A VILLAGE FÊTE IN RUSSIA.

the subject* remarks, it is the chief peninsula of Asia, in the same way that the head is a peninsula of the body, while the colonies have long ago so outstripped the mother countries, that the very name and locality of the latter have in most cases been

* The literature of European geography is so extensive that it would take volumes to indicate even the titles of the works written on the subject. In the "Registrande der geographisch statistichen Abtheilung des Grossen Generalstaben. Neues aus der Geographie, Kartographie und Statistik Europas und seiner Kolonien" (Berlin, 1880), published yearly, will be found a complete list of all books, papers, and maps, bearing on the European countries and their colonies. Among the endless treatises on Europe and its

lost sight of, or can only be guessed by the dangerous test of language. Asia was doubtless the earliest home of all the European people—the Basques, Laps, and Samoyedes perhaps excepted. These people may be considered remnants of the aborigines, who, when the warrior Ayrans poured in from Asia, were wandering in the depths of the great forests which then overspread the country, or fishing on shores which the wild waves have long ago destroyed, or where the only trace of their existence in the world are the Kjokkenmöddinger or shell heaps formed by the refuse of their frugal meals,* or by their remains found in caverns long ago overgrown with vegetation, and only exposed to light by the pick of the navvy, engaged in cutting a way for the railways, between which and these "cave men" there is such a wide gulf of time and intelligence. Europe is the smallest of the great divisions of the earth. In all, its area is not more than 3,833,383 English square miles, or little more than a thirteenth part of the whole globe, so that the usual term of its being one of the "quarters" is a misnomer. Asia is thus four-and-a-half times, Africa three, America four-and-one-eight times as large, though, if its 315,440,734 people are taken into account, it possesses an average of 80·9 for the square mile, which is rather more than the average of the other continents, the "teeming millions" of Asia being centred in only a few of the countries—the interior being for the most part wandered over by nomadic tribes.

The prevailing faith of Europe did not originate there, but came from Asia. Its languages were also derived from one common root—the Aryan—which also supplied the basis of that spoken by the earliest conquerors of India, and with these first immigrants came likewise much of the philosophy, superstitions, and customs, the germ of which can still be traced in every European people, though overlaid by the native accumulations of unnumbered centuries. Yet, though the faith of cultured Europe came entirely from Asia, the Christian religion has in Europe attained a form and consistence which it did not possess in its original shape, and even Mohammedanism has grown laxer and less fanatic in the freer, more tolerant, and cultured atmosphere into which it was transplanted with the invaders of the Byzantine Empire. In Europe also, the arts and sciences have attained a condition which they have reached in no part of Asia through native efforts. Man here has also attained a moral development strange to the races of Asia and Africa, or to the savage tribes of America. His governments have recognised the moral responsibility of the individual as a member of a State, and the right of its individual units to mould the laws under which they have agreed to live, to suit their wants and the ever-changing relations of the world outside their boundaries, or the revolutions which either slowly or suddenly have taken place from within. Europe is naturally the best known part of the world. Actually there is scarcely anything new to tell regarding its main features, or its people, though the progress of more minute researches daily reveals fresh facts regarding its topography, its natural history,

political subdivisions, the admirable digest of Mr. Webster in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, Vol. III., pp. 680–720, is the best in a brief space. To this, and to the references there given, the reader is referred for fuller information in regard to the general features of this quarter of the world.

* In "History out of Refuse Heaps," "Science for All," Vol. II., pp. 102-110, I have given some account of these curious remains as found on the shores of Denmark.

and even the habits, folk-lore, and languages of its people. Trigonometrical surveys have given us maps of most countries so minute that every hamlet, bridle-path, and even every farm are accurately laid down. But it is affirmed that a considerable part of the Finnish Peninsula is still imperfectly explored, and the Balkan range is even yet only known from the reconnaissance which Kantz published in 1875. Until very lately the area of Portugal could not be stated to within 104 miles, and until the surveys of Dufour presented us with a map of Switzerland, there were dozens of Alpine valleys which were as much a *terra incognita* to the geographer as are the more remote glens of the Rocky Mountains. We know, however, enough for all practical purposes, and the only countries ever likely to be as well known are those which are ruled like India by conquerors from Europe, or like America as colonies of the European races, either self-governing or dependent on their mother countries. The middle portion of the European coast-line is, for the most part, flat and sandy. It bears witness to the force of the Atlantic and German Oceans, which for unnumbered ages have beat against it. Its shores are shallow and unbroken, except by the rivers, which, laden with silt, find their way to the sea, depositing far out those banks and muddy islands which the industry of man has in so many cases embanked, and thus rescued from the fate which has overtaken the continental soil from the reassorted *débris* of which they are formed. From Holland to the Danish Peninsula the shores are protected by a bulwark of low sandy islands, all of which seem at one time either to have been part of the adjoining continent, or to have been formed in the manner described, from its materials broken up by the winds, waves, and river-waters. Of these Friesian Islands, Heligoland (p. 204) is the only one which can be described as rocky, though Sylt, Föhr, and some of those formed by the breaking up of the Nordstrand Peninsula in the seventeenth century are comparatively elevated.

On the other hand, the great irregularites of the coast line on the north and south of the Continent is one of its most marked features. Scandinavia may be described as composed of primary and secondary peninsulas, separated by deep fjords or inlets, evidently at one time the beds of old glaciers which discharged icebergs into the North Sea, when the climate of Europe was different from what it is at the present day, just as the glaciers occupying similar depressions, running at right angles to the coast of Greenland, relieve themselves by breaking off in the ice islands which we know by that name. The peninsulas of the south are even more remarkable than the great one which forms Scandinavia, with its subordinate ones in the north. The Balkan Peninsula (p. 15) terminates in the cluster of islands and peninsulas which have ever bulked so largely in the world's history under the name of Greece. The Italian Peninsula, with its off-lier, Sicily, has exercised an even greater sway over the destinies of Europe, which "the Peninsula" *par excellence*, which comprises Spain and Portugal, and on its neck on the other side of the Pyrenees, part of France also, has aided in the exploration of most of the world, and entirly in the colonisation of South America and other less important parts. Altogether, out of the 19,820 miles of the European coast line (excluding the indentations), 8,390 must be credited to the Atlantic, 7,830 to the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, and 3,600 to the Arctic Ocean. Europe has thus in her extended ocean frontier every facility for commerce, and to the many harbours of her peaceful inland sea must be attributed the great

development of trade in the Mediterranean, though the climate and soil are elements which must not be omitted in any such calculation. The colonists and conquerors of the world have come from Northern and Southern Europe, and to their roving propensities must be attributed the high stage of civilisation to which the people of the north have attained, despite obstacles which might under other circumstances have checked their progress. Middle Europe was, until the era of railways, and the blessings which easy inter-communication brought, comparatively rude and uncultured, as are the people of the upper portion of the Balkan Peninsula, the Austrian Empire, Poland, and Russia at the present day. The Germans near the coast always sent out colonists and conquerors, and in more peaceful times America has largely gained by the industrious,

VIEW OF HELIGOLAND (THE ONLY BRITISH COLONY IN THE NORTH SEA).

sober immigrants from the Fatherland. They in their turn have influenced their inland countrymen, until an exodus more pronounced, but owing to its gradual character less apparent than the ancient movements of nations and tribes which peopled Europe, is going on. Italy in like manner is sending every year the flower of her people to South America, and in a minor degree to the northern part of the Continent. Scandinavia, though, owing to her small population, and the greater prosperity of the peasants, not transferring such a large contingent to the New World, is still year by year despatching advanced guards of her intelligent manly sons to the prairies on the other side of the Atlantic. It may be that in time the American Continent will contain a population not much less than Europe. It is certain that in the course of a very few years, by obtaining its civilisation ready made, it will compete on more than equal terms with the

Old World, while in material prosperity its population will far surpass that from which they originally sprang. Meantime, the centre of gravity is still on this side of the world, and our star is likely for a long time to continue in the ascendant. It may be doubted whether a people mainly devoted to agriculture can ever attain a high grade of polish, while it is perfectly certain that a civilisation altogether imported, and uninfluenced by any other nation of equal culture on its borders, must ever be more or less exotic.

THE CRATER OF MOUNT HEKLA, ICELAND.

Europe is in many respects happily situated in so far that though earthquakes are not unknown, in their greater or less intensity in every part of the country, and three of the greatest volcanoes of modern times are found within its borders, viz., Hekla in Iceland, Vesuvius on the western coast of Italy, and Ætna in Sicily, in addition to minor ones, the region is not much disturbed by the phenomenal disturbances of nature. Stability and confidence are accordingly impressed upon its institutions and its cities. Men build for posterity, and confident that whatever may be the political changes, the common rights of the owner will be protected, enter on those great schemes

of public improvements which can alone be risked in a state not in continual terror of the earthquake and the volcano, the tornado and the political tempest. Yet Europe is really undergoing constant changes. The action of the seas and the rivers are, and always have been, altering the contour of the coast line. Towns have disappeared in the ocean, and what were seaports a few hundred years ago are now decayed inland "burgs." Again, the coasts of part of Norway are like those of the circumpolar lands, slowly rising, while on the other hand the southern shores of Sweden have, within historical times, been suffering an equally gradual depression, such as is at present going on along the coast of Greenland (Vol. I., p. 67) and other countries.

General Physical Characteristics.

Europe is one of the most varied quarters of the world, and, considering its area, perhaps the best watered. Its lowlands lie near Asia, or to the east, being for the most part comprised in the broad undulating plains of Russia, the shores of the Gulf of Bothnia, and the Swedish side of the Baltic, North Germany, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, and Western France. The highlands are made up in the south of the European extension of the Asiatic mountains from Turkey to Spain, while the lowlands we have spoken of separate these southern highlands from the northern ones of Scandinavia, which again appear in Britain in a less pronounced form.

The lowlands of Europe are its most populous regions, for they alone yield those surplus supplies of corn and other agricultural produce which constitute the wealth of the peasants. Russia is as yet a land of raw material. Its great plains are dotted with forests, alternating with swamps and cultivated lands, or pastoral districts. In the north, all along the eastern shores of North Europe and Asia, there are great flat tûndras, or mossy lands, pastured over by herds of reindeer, and infested by swarms of mosquitoes during the summer. In the winter they are pathless, snow-covered wastes, lit by the aurora, or by the bright northern moon and stars, and deserted even by the iron nomads whose home is in their vicinity. In the south, in the vicinity of the Black Sea, the country rises into flat uplands, prairies, or steppes, covered with long grass, affording fine pasturage for great herds of cattle, while on the other side of the Caspian the salt efflorescence which covers the ground, and prevents the growth of any save plants fitted for such an unkindly soil, point to the further extension, in former times, of that and other inland seas. Russia is thus a country of some monotony, but of great possibilities. Only a tithe of it is cultivated, and accordingly, as the population increases, the food of the people is never likely to fail. The immense rivers which intersect it form cheap highways, up and down which the surplus supplies of grain are carried for exportation; while the railways, though for the most part constructed with an eye to military purposes, are rapidly extending the means of intercommunication through the greatest of the European States. Finland is also a flat country, but unlike Russia, which rests on old red sandstone (Devonian), its base is granite, hollowed out into an endless network of lakes, basins, and rivers, or broken into high cliffs which line its rugged shores, or into lofty islands like the Alands, which to the mariner of the Baltic play the part of advance-

guards to the dangerous navigation nearer land. Most of the European islands are high, except those which form the Danish Archipelago. The latter may be considered part of North Germany, which is in its turn the continuation southward of the lowlands of Scandinavia, marked by the long-stretching gravel ridge, "Os-ars" or "Eskars," which, like the endless boulders scattered over their surface, are remnants of that great ice age which once overspread the North of Europe. The eastern portion of the North German plain has the same general characteristics as Russia; it is dry, and yields heavy crops of wheat and other grain; but further west, in the region of which the city of Berlin is the centre, the country becomes more sandy, and less fertile. In Oldenburg, and on both sides of the Lower Elbe, there lie broad marshy lands, half-flooded during wet weather, but during the summer rich with grass, on which feed the herds of cattle which supply much of the butter and cheese sent to England, and the roast beef, which though consumed in these "oxless isles," is in reality of foreign growth. In Oldenburg and on to Holland similiar fens, marshes, and moors prevail, and in the inland parts of Hanover the dreary Luneburg Heath, over which the traveller from Bremen to Hamburg runs by rail, is one of the most characteristic parts of the North German lowland. The Rhine Delta is one of the richest parts of the mid-European agricultural country. Horses and cattle here pasture in thousands, over a broad region, the meadow-like character of which is only broken by the wedge-like heaths and moors of Brabant, stretching from the Rhine to the Scheldt. Champagne, the Vignobles of the Garonne, the grain country of Brié and Touraine, and the Landes of Brittany, are among the most marked of the French lowlands. The first-named are also among the most fertile and thickly-populated parts of Europe. The latter consist of great sandy flats, incapable of growing any crops, except by the aid of the artificial appliances which have of late years been adopted to prevent the shifting of the sand. Pitch-pine forests, which now afford the materials for a considerable industry, have been planted, and the sedges and other long-rooted plants have in places been employed to bind together the sand, so that by the growth and decay of repeated crops of grass and clover a thin soil has been formed. As a result, villages have started up here and there through the Landes, and this arid region, once only peopled by scattered flocks of lean sheep, pastured by a shepherd who walked on stilts, and who, as he rested from his labours by sitting on a third support, looked at a distance like a three-legged stork, is now able to show a greater semblance of civilisation than it has ever displayed since the world began. In the Basin of the Danube there are two other isolated lowland regions, separated by the Iron Gate, that is, the high gorge through which the river runs, at the point where the Balkan and Carpathian ranges come together. The first of these is Hungary, a land of corn-fields, vineyards, marsh-lands sand flats, and grassy steppes, over which pasture the cattle, sheep, swine, and horses which constitute the Magyars' wealth; and Roumania, which Mr. Keith Johnston not unjustly considers a continuation of the Russian lowland, lying on the lower part of the Danube, and finally merging into the reedy swamps known as the Dobrudscha, though the portion nearest to the Black Sea are altogether uninhabitable, owing to the mosquitoes, malaria, and a surplus of water. A third isolated plain, and perhaps the richest of them all, is that of Lombardy, in Italy. Wheat and rice grow within a few

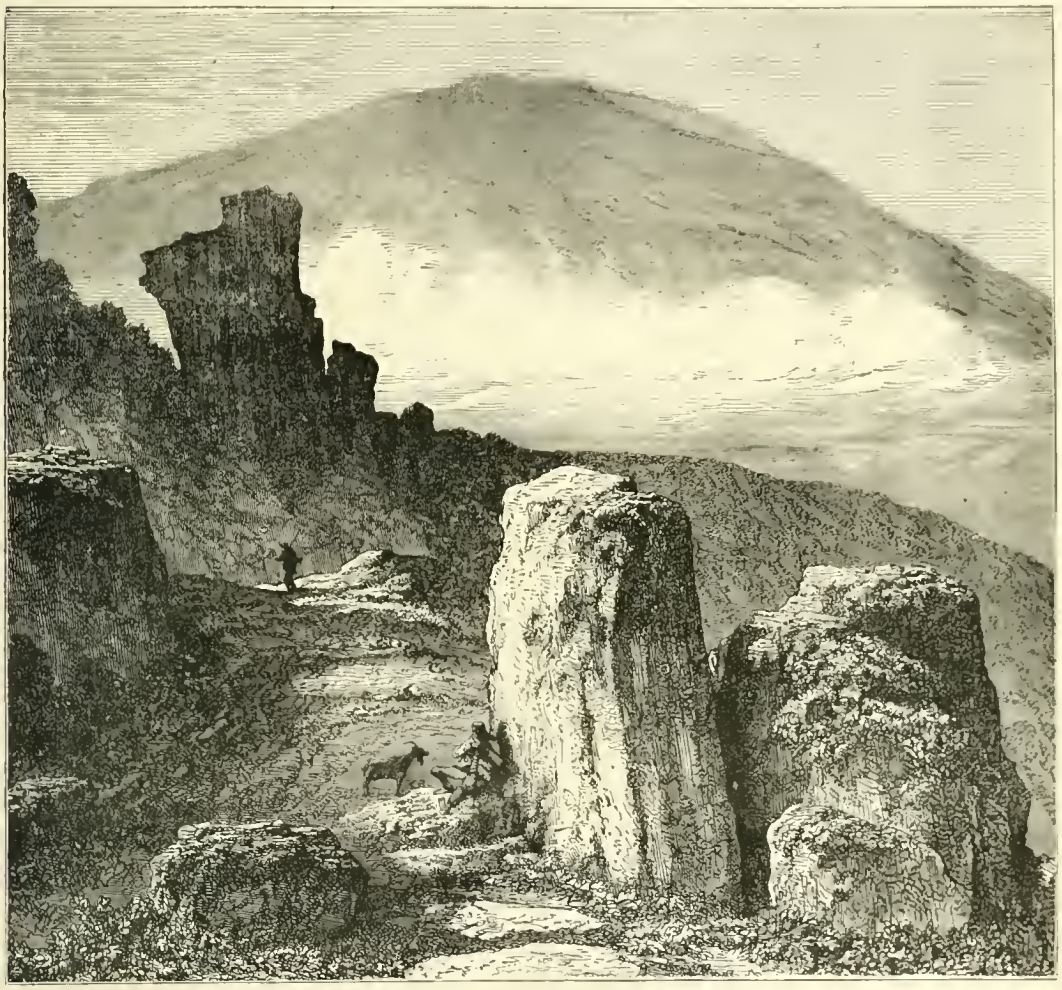
yards of each other, and wine, as a product, competes with cheese, while the irrigated meadows will yield six crops of grain in one year. A fourth isolated plain is sometimes added to this list, in the shape of the bogs of central Ireland.* But the Emerald Isle is essentially part of the high country of Europe, though lying 600 miles west of the continent; and this plain, unlike those of the rest of the Continent, is more deficient in the materials for happiness, wealth, or even existence than almost any other habitable part of the country. The Alps constitute the central part of the southern mountain region of Europe, and has been described as "curving round the plain of Lombardy" in

MONT BLANC (THE LOFTIEST PEAK IN THE ALPS).

the three divisions of the Western, the Central, and the Eastern Alps, or as the name seems to signify, "the White Mountains." The Alps, as a whole, cover about 75,000 square miles, and if they were flattened out, and the material of which they are contained equally distributed, it would raise the surface of the Continent, according to the calculations of Leipoldt, 89 feet above the present level. Mont St. Gotthard is about the centre of this main, but Mont Blanc, 15,781 feet high, is the loftiest peak in the ranges. Mr. Webster very justly remarks that with the exception of the Pyrenees and its dependencies, all the mountains of Southern and Central Europe may be regarded as secondary features

* Keith Johnston: "Geography," pp. 157, 158. In this work will be also found one of the clearest *resumés* in a brief space of the physical geography of this and the other continents in the English or any language.

of the general Alpine system. "If it were possible with more than human reach of sight to take an outlook northwards—from some commanding peak on the northern skirts of the great chain, the whole country for two hundred miles and more would appear occupied by irregular lines and groupings of mountains and hills rising from a kind of table-land, and intersected by the deep-cut valleys of the larger rivers. Towards the north-east the most



VIEW OF THE BROCKEN, IN THE HARZ MOUNTAINS, GERMANY.

conspicuous heights are those of the Jura proper, which runs parallel with the Alps, and are separated from them by the valleys of the Rhine and Aar, the latter a main tributary of the Rhine. The German Jura trends north-east, the Black Forest north from the eastern extending extremity of the Jura proper, and fronting the Black Forest on the north side of the Rhine lies the Vosges. Further north, the Rhine valley is defined on the west by the Hardt, the Hochwald, the Eifel, and the Ardennes and on the east by the Odenwald, the Westerwald, and the Taunus. North of the German Jura lie the Franconian Heights, which are

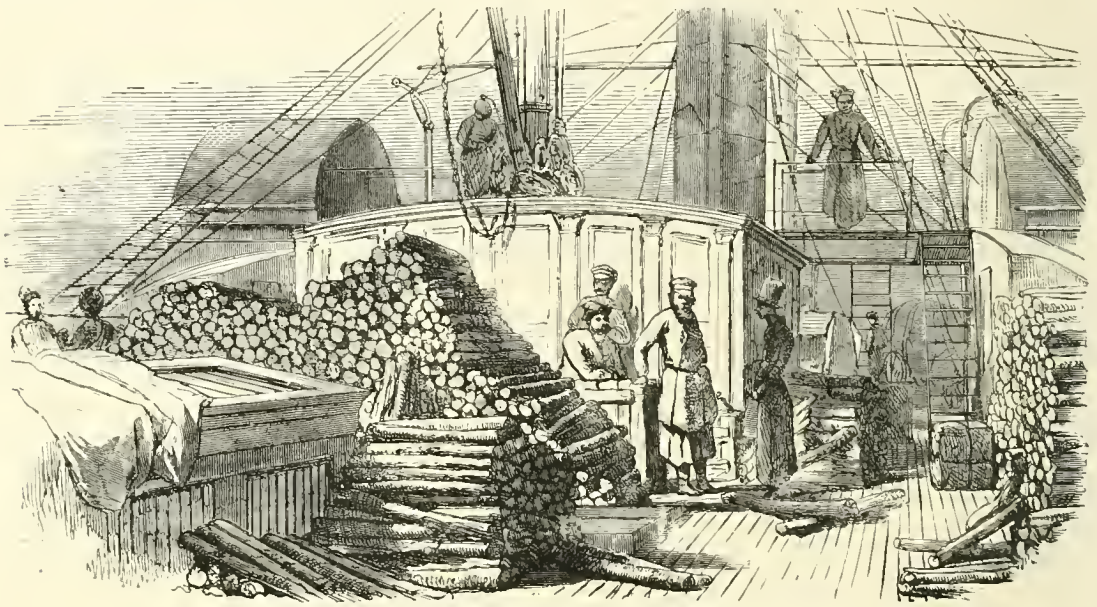
separated by the valley of the Main from the Spessart, the Rhön, and the Thüringerwald. From the Thüringerwald south-east rises the successive clusters of the Frankenwald and the Fichtelgebirge; and from the last *massif* eastward extends the Erzgebirge as far as the valley of the Elbe, and south-eastwards the Böhmerwald along the valley of the Danube. Beyond the Elbe, and forming the eastern rim of the upper basin, are the Riesengebirge, and the so-called Sudetic chain, which, by its southern extremity, approaches the Carpathian Mountains; and these again, in company with the Transylvanian Mountains, curve south and enclose the great Hungarian plains. The Balkan to the south of the Danube is practically on the one hand a continuation of the Transylvanian range, and on the other is connected by the mountains of Carinthia, Dalmatia, Bosnia, and Servia, with the eastern extremity of the Alps. The Apennines are still more closely connected with the eastern extremity, and the mountains of Auvergne and the Cevennes in France may also be regarded as outliers of the system." The ancient volcanoes of Auvergne, in Central France, might also be considered as a continuation of the system. The Pyrenees (which in Mont Perdu rises to 11,270 feet) shut off the Spanish Peninsula from the rest of Europe. They are a great wall 240 miles in length, and though practically continued by the Cantabrian Mountains for 260 miles more, this portion of the system differs from the main range in being steepest towards the north instead of towards the south. Connected with these ranges are the various Sierras of Spain, which by their union form the table-lands of Castile, swept by the icy winds during the winter months, and scorched by the hot sun during the summer. Bare and treeless, they yet afford during a few weeks in the year enough grass for cattle and sheep. But life in these uplands is chequered. "The herdsmen, who wear a broad-brimmed hat for protection against the excessive heat during the day a few hours later puts on his thick warm cloak. In the same way, after the almost rainless summer, follows a cold winter with ice and snow." The Apennines, which runs like a bare wall-like backbone down the Italian Peninsula, are prolongations of the maritime Alps, but recall, in their treeless, barren appearance, but little of the noble range of which they are the continuation. Vesuvius, the famous volcano of the plain of Campania, is the chief of the peaks of this range, which varies in height from 2,600 feet—its average—to 9,493 feet, which is the elevation of Gransasso. The Carpathians and Transylvanian Alps border Hungary and send branches through Servia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Montenegro, and Albania, and take a more definite shape in the Balkan range, some of the features of which have been already noted (pp. 15, 16). The Caucasus is a distinct range acting as a boundary wall between Europe and Asia, and send out detached spurs in the shape of the Crimean hills, wandered over by the Tartar herdsmen, the co-religionists of the Circassian tribesmen who have their homes, and for so long made a bold stand for freedom, amid their wild glens and the little plateaux which unite the different parallel chains. The "frosty Caucasus" rises in Elburz (Vol. V., p. 303) to 18,572 feet, but the climate is dry, and hence the snowfall is small, and the glaciers insignificant in comparison with those which pour through the gorges of the Alps and other European ranges of much lower elevation. All the European islands are high, and on some of them are lofty mountains, such as Oræfa and Hekla in Iceland,

Ætna in Sicily, Monte Rotondo in Corsica, and so forth; but in the far north the Scandinavian mountains are for the most part more elevated plateaux than ranges in the strict sense of the term. The term *fjeld*, or field, which is universally applied to them, points to this. Indeed, in some respects Scandinavia in its upland parts may be described as a great plateau which have been cut up by river courses into flat-topped mountains. Finally, not to mention numerous smaller or less significant detached heights, there is the Ural range separating Russia from Siberia, and therefore very marked and important. But, contrary to the common belief, the elevation of this chain of mountains is small. The traveller drives through it on sledge or tarantass, and is almost unconscious of having ascended or passed the water-shed, for at no portion of its extent is it over 5,430 feet, which is the height of the Töllposs, though in reality the roads through the valley are very much lower.

Europe has many large rivers flowing into the Arctic Ocean, the Atlantic, the Mediterranean, and the Caspian. The latter is mainly supplied by the Volga, essentially the river of Russia. It flows through the greater extent of the Empire in Europe from north to south, and supplies the highway for a great extent of inland and way commerce, conveyed by steamers, barges, and boats of every description. The Tagus, Duero, Gironde, Loire, Thames, Meuse, Mersey, Garonne, Seine, Rhine, and Elbe are the most important of the Atlantic rivers, and those which attract most trade, either through their estuaries or throughout the greater portion of their course from the interior of the continent. All of them are tidal rivers, and hence have an advantage over those of the Mediterranean, the Black Sea, and the Caspian, which, possessing no marked tides, are not widened out at their mouths by the estuaries which from the earliest times have drawn so many trading communities to the outlets of the Atlantic continental drainers. A tideless river is not attractive to seamen, for there is no taking advantage of the flow to run up to the port, or the ebb to run down from it, should the current not be strong enough for that purpose. Hence, it will be found that the great cities on the Atlantic rivers are all at about the limit of tidal waters when there is no intervening obstacle to navigation. The Elbe, the Danube, and the Rhine, the greatest of all the continental rivers, so far as commerce is concerned, are subject during several months of the year to closure by ice, which puts commerce either to an end, or greatly hampers it. The Volga, the Don, the Dneiper, and Dneister, which, like the Danube, flows into the Black Sea, are also more or less blockaded by frost during the winter, though, as the Sea of Azov is also covered, and even in exceptional cases the northern coast of the Black Sea (or Euxine), this is not such a serious loss as it would be under other circumstances. The shallow Baltic is believed to have communicated at some early period with the Arctic Ocean. At present its waters are so diluted with the discharge of the Oder, Vistula, Niemen, Dvina, and Neva (the short, broad river on which St. Petersburg is built), that it is frozen over every winter, as are, of course, the Northern Dvina and Petchora, which flow into the Arctic Ocean, though during the summer they afford a broad watery highway for the commerce of the rude region which they drain. Down them come timber, tar, hemp, furs, and grain, in rafts, barges, and "country boats," cargoes for the ships which

visit the shores of the White Sea for the brief period during which navigation is open. The drainage of the country in the vicinity of the Baltic does not, as we have already seen, unite to form any very great rivers. It is broken up by the inequalities of the country into a number of smaller streams which feed an endless network of lakes, such as the Wetter and Mälar in Sweden, and the Ladoga, which is the largest fresh-water sheet in Europe, in their turn be emptied by a number of brawling torrents of little use to the sailor but dear to the salmon fisher.

High waterfalls are not so common in Europe as in America. There is the Schaffhausen, famous in song and story, where the Rhine leaps 50 feet over the rocks; the Gotha-Elf Falls of 100 feet, at Trollhata, in Sweden; the Hjommel Sayka of the Lulea, in



A STEAMBOAT ON THE VOLGA.

the same region, 250 feet; the Ruikan Fos, at Mjösvand, 800 feet high; and the still more famous Staubbach in the vicinity of Lauterbrunnen. But none of them can compare with the cataract of the Niagara, or even with the Yosemite (Vol. I., p. 319), or the Snake. The Lauterbrunnen, though tumbling from a great height, wants majesty, as the stream which forms it is only a tiny rivulet, almost dried up during the hot months, and at best dissipated into spray before it reaches the bottom, though, indeed, this is one of the attractions of the spectacle. More curious are the subterranean rivers, of which we have so many specimens in America. Among the most remarkable of this class in Europe are the Sorgue of Vaucluse, which has been followed up some fifteen miles under ground, and the Timavo of Istria, which is so large that when it issues from the ground it is already navigable. In addition to the several subterranean affluents of the Mediterranean, one at least of the rivers taking their rise in glaciers, viz., the Garonne, runs under Mount Poumar nearly two miles and a half. Many of the

European rivers, like the Danube, the Elbe, the Oder, and the Loire are subject to sudden rises, either by the melting of the snows near their source, or by heavy rain-falls, which submerge the neighbouring flat country, and often cause great loss of life and property. The means taken to prevent or obviate in some degree the disastrous effects of these floods form an interesting feature in the social economy of the Netherlands,

VIEW OF LAKE BANDAK ("BANDAKSVAND"), NORWAY.

France, and the flatter portions of Germany, while the cost bulks largely in the domestic budget of the countries so unfortunate as to be subject to the inundations of their unruly water-courses.

Climate.

Stretching from the bleak shores of the Polar Sea to the warm waters of the Mediterranean, Europe has necessarily many climates, quite apart from the fact that its

varied elevations permit the dwellers in most portions of the continent to choose the temperature in which they would prefer to live. The far northern parts are dismally cold during the winter. Snow covers every inch of the ground from the sea to the mountain-tops, while even when the range of forests is reached the gloomy pines, standing funereal-like out of the snow, impart an additional sense of sombreness to the scene. This region is, however, in the summer almost attractive. For months the sun never sets. Millions of migratory birds hie them north to rear their young in this solitary region. Every cliff is noisy with its feathered denizens; swarms of mosquitoes detract from the pleasures of out-door life; but the clearness of the atmosphere is a charm which not even the uncertainty of the weather can efface. The heat is often almost oppressive, and, just as the traveller is prepared to toss off his upper garments, an icy wind, or even a snow-storm in June, warns him that he is not beyond the region of King Frost. In these northern regions the vegetable food of the south is not required for the healthy sustenance of man—a happy provision, since Nature refuses to yield it. In the Arctic regions proper scarcely a cultivated product can grow in the half-frozen boggy soil; and at the North Cape of Norway barley and oats are the only cereals which can flourish, radishes and a few other garden herbs eking out a stunted existence in certain localities. Animal life is, however, abundant. The sea swarms with fish, seals, whales, and walruses, and the land is still roamed over by herds of wild reindeer, in addition to the tamed ones which from time immemorial the Laps and the Samoyedes have kept as beasts of draught, and as the kine from which milk, butter, cheese, and if need be meat, are to be obtained. But as we proceed south we enter a more genial region. The summer heats are high, even oppressive, in middle Europe, and the winter snowfall is usually so heavy as to cover the ground for several months in the year. At that season nearly all out-door work comes to a close; communication is kept up by means of sledges or carriages put on runners; and as the lakes, rivers, and even the estuaries are partially or wholly frozen, the people of North Germany, Denmark, and the Netherlands are during such seasons practically debarred from any save the most irregular connection with the outside world, or even with the detached portions of their own country. Spain, the South of France, Italy, Greece, and Southern Turkey comprise a more hospitable zone. Here the summer heats are not much higher than further north, but the winters are short and mild, little snow falls, and the spring speedily arrives. The climate is usually dry, for though the average rainfall is 36 inches per annum, compared with 26 inches in the more northern zone, the number of rainy days are fewer than in any part of Europe, except the extreme south. Portugal, the southern part of Spain, and Italy, including their islands, may be characterised as a kind of sub-tropical region. Here flourish the sugar-cane and the dwarf palm; while on the Rock of Gibraltar lives a colony of monkeys, the only members of their order found in the European Continent. The existence of the ocean on one side, and the broad stretch of Asia for 5,000 unbroken miles on the other, has greatly affected the climate of this part of the world. The comparatively warm winds from the ocean temper the cold of the western shores; and without accepting everything which is claimed for the ameliorating influences of the Gulf Stream, it is impossible to deny that a current

which runs from the Gulf of Mexico to beyond Spitzbergen must exercise some effect on the temperature of the countries which it skirts. As we advance inland towards the east, the contrast between summer and winter becomes more and more marked, the climate of these regions approximating in their extremes to that of Eastern Asia and Western America, beyond the reach of the Pacific breezes or the warm winds of the Mexican Gulf. The rainfall also decreases as we travel eastward—that is, away from the ocean. On the west coast of Portugal, from 73 to 118 inches of rain fall every year, while the plains of Russia and Germany have only 20 inches. At even a comparatively short distance from the coast there is a marked influence on the amount of moisture in the air. For instance, the west of France is deluged by 60 to 70 inches, while further inland the fall is reduced to 30 inches, and at Paris it is only 22 inches. Dr. Bryce tells us that at Bergen, on the West Coast of Norway, there is an average rainfall of 89 inches, while Upsala, on the other side of the Scandinavian Peninsula, receives only 22 inches, and Uleaborg but 13 inches. Some parts of Sweden and Russia, removed still further from the influence of the ocean, experience a rainfall still less than this. The European rains are for the most part irregular. In the extreme south most moisture falls during the winter, though in Northern and Central Spain, Southern France, and Northern and Central Italy the spring and autumn are the wettest months. In middle Europe, near the sea, the winter is also usually the rainy season; in the cold countries further north naturally little rain can fall at that period except in the form of snow: accordingly, the autumn is the period during which the clouds precipitate water; while in Germany, Austria, Hungary, Russia, Sweden, and in Eastern France also, summer is often wetter than the other twelve months. The height and direction of the mountains, proximity to the coast, and other physical causes, determine the quantity of rain which falls, and as Europe is an irregularly outlined and surfaced continent, there are equally exceptional features in the distribution of its moisture. In general terms, however, it may be stated that Central Europe is dry and Western Europe wet, that the north is cold in winter and hot in summer, the difference between the temperatures of the two seasons being, near the Arctic Ocean 55°, while in the south the seasons are hotter, but not separated by such extremes, the proof being that at Palermo there is a difference of 20° between summer and winter. Ireland is usually said to be the wettest portion of this quarter of the world. As a rule, and taking the whole country into consideration, this may be a fairly accurate assertion; but, as a fact, the greatest amount of rain known has been recorded from two or three British localities. Thus at Stye Pass, in the west of England, 189·49 inches has been registered; at Seathwaite, 152·14; and at Glencoe, in Argyllshire, 128·60 inches. On the other hand, the driest portions of Europe, are the lower part of the basin of the Dneiper, the country watered by the middle division of the Volga, and the whole of the basin of the Don, which receives not more than 9·8 to 15·7 inches, while the great Aralo-Caspian depression, including about 100 miles of the Lower Volga, is an almost rainless region.*

* Krümmel: *Zeitschrift für Erdkunde zu Berlin*, 1878; cited by Mr. Webster.

Vegetable and Animal Life.

The distribution of vegetation in Europe is not sufficiently remarkable to catch the unbotanical eye. The traveller walking from Archangel to Rome would doubtless experience a feeling that every few days took him into fresh regions; but unless he were a man of more than ordinary powers of observation and knowledge of plants, the actual change would not strike him so much as if he were journeying the same distance from the north to the south of the upper portion of the American continent. He might notice the disappearance of certain familiar flowers, and the gradual appearance of others strange to his eye. Here he might cross a bare plain and there a dense forest, and at times crops with which at first sight he failed to claim an acquaintance, while he would in time see the houses shaded by trees altogether unknown to him, and the gardens beautified by flowers and shrublets which a few weeks earlier he had seen struggling for existence on the stove-side of the cottage-windows he had passed on his southern march. But where the one ended and the other began he could not possibly say. Indeed, vegetation having been so long cultivated in Europe, and the effects of culture and the arts of civilisation being everywhere so prominent, the continent—apart from the fact that it is wanting in those great gulfs which deserts, prairies, huge lakes, enormous mountain ranges, and parched tracts interpose between botanical regions—is less broken up into distinct provinces of animal and vegetable life than any of the other regions of the world, Australia perhaps excepted. Still, if the traveller could possibly fall asleep in Moscow and wake up in Berlin, he would instantly see that the surroundings of these cities were widely different in many respects, as regards their natural organic life; while, if he again examined Naples, he would feel that Europe is, even in its botanical and zoological features, a quarter of the globe not without variety. To sum up the broad features of the continent in this respect, it may be said with Schouw that the Mediterranean countries are essentially the region of cloveworts* and the dead-nettle† order; Middle and Northern Europe the home of the hemlock‡ and wall-flower§ orders; and the most northern region of all the land of mosses and saxifrages.

Still, all this is of advantage. A perpetual summer is monotonous; a perpetual winter is scarcely less conducive to moral and mental lethargy. The variety of the seasons makes "the Europeans" what they are. Every month has its appointed work to do, and in few parts of this home of the world's enlightenment and modern civilisation is the climate sufficiently balmy or the soil fruitful enough to bring forth its increase without the expenditure of a greater or less amount of labour. The nearest approach to such a *dolce far niente* land of afternoon is the south of Spain. "In the Vega of Murcia," writes Mr. Webster, "there is no set time to sow or time to reap; every month brings its fruit, and spring and autumn keep pleasant fellowship throughout the year. The ground is no sooner cleared of its crops than it is again under the plough, and within a few weeks it is green with another crop." Altogether, there are about 11,200 species of known plants in Europe, and from 2,400 to 2,500 cultivated species, including those confined to the hot-houses and the gardens solely for purposes of ornamentation.

* Caryophyllaceæ. † Labiatæ. ‡ Umbelliferæ. § Cruciferæ.

AN ORANGE-GROVE IN THE SOUTH OF SPAIN.

When the progenitors of the present races inhabiting Europe reached the continent, the chances are that they found the greater portion of it covered with forest, for up to the historical period there were immense tracts still clothed with what there is no reason to doubt were primæval jungles. But in the progress of time these stretches have to a great extent been cleared, so that the portions of Europe thickly settled by civilised peoples are nearly all under cultivation, except where the nature of the ground does not admit of the plough being run, or where the soil is too poor to support artificial crops, or the climate too severe to admit of their ripening. Among these regions is the extreme north of Europe. The country immediately bordering the Arctic Sea is the well-known boggy flats called "tûndras," evidently at some not very remote geological period gradually raised above the surface of the neighbouring sea. Indeed, this elevation is still going on. In this bleak, cold region, the only plants at all connected with wooded vegetation are the dwarf willow and crowberry, creeping along the surface of the mossy ground. Trees are as impossible of growth in this northern area of the continent as they are in the region of steppes bordering the Caspian and the Black Sea, on account of the absence, not of heat, but of moisture. But immediately south of the tûndra comes a belt of wood—stunted, it is true, but forests of primæval growth, nevertheless—extending across Scandinavia and Northern Russia. In this belt there are some oats and barley grown, and sheep and cattle grazed, but what the Americans call "lumbering" is the staple industry of the forest region. The average proportion of wooded to unwooded land in Europe is 25 per cent., but the Norwegian forests cover 66 per cent., and those of Russia 31 per cent. of the soil. Sweden has 29 per cent. of its surface so occupied, which is about the percentage given to Austria-Hungary. The Netherlands have only 7 per cent., Denmark 6, and Great Britain 4. These figures will enable the reader to picture the relative appearance, from this point of view, of the various European countries. Spain, Switzerland, France, Italy, Greece, and Belgium are wooded in the order mentioned; but all of them sink under the average 25 per cent. of the continent at large, though at the same time it must not be forgotten that the actual value of the timber covering the areas denoted must not be calculated on the basis of its extent. For instance, Northern Russia, which is more than three-fourths covered with forests, contains fewer marketable trees or makes less of its timber than Sweden, which has barely a third of the amount; while France, with 15·8 per cent., and Spain, with 20·38, are both richer in forest products than any of the countries named. Scandinavia is, indeed, the greatest country in Europe for planks, though Russia, Austria, and Switzerland also carry on a considerable inland trade in timber. In Spain the cork oak is the most valuable tree, though in Portugal, also a cork-yielding country, the royal domain of Leira is covered with the famous Bordeaux pine, which yields large supplies of turpentine and tar, as well as much of the charcoal used in the country. In Central Europe there are also pines, but this, in the language of the botanist, is essentially the "region of deciduous trees"—that is, of those which, unlike pines, shed their leaves at the approach of winter, though, for that matter, so do pines, only they do not all fall at once: hence the popular idea that they are "evergreen." This region is the home of the grape and the usual fruits of temperate Europe. Here also flourish the great agricultural populations of the continent, since the climate of Middle

Europe is eminently fitted for the growth of wheat and other cereals; while still further to the south the orange and the fig become the common fruits; while the chestnut, the stone pine, and the cork-tree are the most prominent features of the forest growth. The growth of vegetation on mountains scarcely comes within our province; but it may be said in general terms that from the base of a high mountain in, say, Central Europe to the summit, the zones of plant-life on its sides are very much the same as are the zones of plant-life in descending from north to south. An Alpine peak is, therefore, from the botanist's point of view, a segment of Europe tilted up on end, and foreshortened, so that what occupies on the flat from north to south some 2,200 miles, is compressed from the top to the bottom of the mountain into half as many feet. The *study* of a mountain—not merely the climbing of it, for that is simply a piece of athleticism on a par with walking so many miles round a circus in so many hours—is, in reality, studying on a small scale the continent in which it is placed. On the top of it we find the eternal Arctic snows, with the Arctic plants peeping out from the crevices where they can find a little soil to take root. Lower down, we pass through the forest growth, the pines and firs disputing the soil with the glacier, which is creeping downward, just as in the far north it crept seaward, and broke off in the shape of icebergs; and at a height of about 4,000 feet above the sea the region of deciduous trees begins, and continues until, if the mountain is of a sufficiently low latitude, the sub-tropical zone of life appears. On the highest of these mountains the snow lies "perpetually" at a certain height, varying according to latitude and position, but lower down it melts off every year. The shepherds and herdsmen follow up the appearing vegetation as little by little it is uncovered during the spring and advancing summer, retreating again as the upland pastures become clothed with their wintry covering.

The animal life of Europe is not varied, while the larger mammals have been greatly thinned off by the progress of civilisation and agriculture, though, perhaps, few of them have been absolutely exterminated, unless we accept the great urus as an exception. The elk—the moose of America—the reindeer, the bears, the lynx, the ibex, the chamois, the wild sheep, various species of deer, an antelope, and in the extreme east the camel, are the principal large animals, the other indigenous ones being either small, or, like the fox, kept up to some extent by the protection of man. In the time of the Romans the lion is described as existing in Southern Russia, though on that point doubt may be reasonably expressed. The beaver, with the wolf, bear, and reindeer survived in Britain well into the historical period, while the caves and superficial deposits contain the remains of a number of large quadrupeds which have long ago disappeared from the world. The birds are so very generally distributed that, with a comparatively few exceptions, the British isles contain the whole of them, either as residents or visitants. There are not many reptiles, and these usually of a small size and innocuous character. The adders are doubtless venomous, but unless under exceptional circumstances their bite is rarely attended with fatal consequences. There are three land tortoises and several fresh-water ones, but, with the exception of the species which extends as far north as Prussia, they are all denizens of the south. There is a turtle in the Mediterranean and neighbour-

ing waters, a chameleon in Spain, and among lizards a species of iguanidæ (*Stellio vulgaris*) in Greece. Altogether, there are about forty genera enumerated, the most remarkable of which is, perhaps, the *Proteus*, found in the caves of Carniola.*

The seas, rivers, and lakes of Europe swarm with fishes, a large majority of which are capable of being used for food, and some of them are noted as among the most valuable of those sought after. But with the exception, however, of the salmon family, which inhabit all the Atlantic rivers as far south as the Loire, and the sturgeon, few of the fresh-water fish of Europe are very toothsome or of great commercial importance. They are caught mainly for home consumption, and are not exported to an extent which figures in the returns of commerce. The salmon fisheries are mainly in Norway, Iceland, and the Rhine; the sturgeon fisheries are, on the other hand, confined to a few rivers, most of which are in Russia. Of these the Volga is the principal. This great drainer of half of the Russian Empire in Europe, and which is connected with the other water-ways of the country by means of canals,† forms, as we have seen, the road by which the products of a vast extent of country are interchanged. But though its value as a navigable channel is great, its fisheries are scarcely less important. At its mouth the sturgeon and its allies, the sterlet and the sevruga, in addition to several species of the perch family, are exceedingly numerous, and have from the earliest times attracted to that locality a motley semi-European, semi-Asiatic population. The capture of the sturgeon and other fishes, and the preparation of their flesh for food, or the manipulation of their swimming-bladders for the manufacture of isinglass, may be said to keep the important, if uncleanly, city of Astrakhan in life. The sea fisheries of Europe—and particularly those of the herring, pilchard, cod, sardine, eel, mullet, and anchovy—are, however, the best known and most lucrative of all the European fisheries. These fish, in their fresh, salt, and dried condition, form an important part of the food of all classes, more especially the poorer, and are the means of adding immensely to the wealth of the countries engaged in their capture and commerce. Tens of thousands of boats and larger vessels are occupied in this business, while the number of hardy seamen, their wives and families, who find their daily bread in the sea-fisheries of England alone may be counted by millions. The tunny is captured in the Mediterranean; and here also the so-called sponge and coral "fisheries" are prosecuted with much vigour and profit: the former in the Ægean Sea, the latter along the coasts of Andalusia, Sardinia, and Corsica.‡

All kinds of domestic animals suited for the country have been naturalised in Europe from the earliest periods. Its horses are now the finest in the world; the splendid stocks of Arabia have been mingled with other blood, until the progeny

* Clermont: "Guide to the Quadrupeds and Reptiles of Europe" (1859), &c. &c.

† Peschel: "Europäische Staatenkunde" (1880) contains an account of this, among other features of Europe, more in detail than it is possible for us to go. But the most exhaustive work on the "Volga" is that of Victor Ragosin, of which the first volume has just been issued at St. Petersburg. Von Siebold's "Die Süsswasserfische von Mitteleuropa" (1863) leaves little to be desired with regard to a full account of the fishes and fisheries of the lakes and rivers of the continent.

‡ "Science for All," Vol. I., pp. 57, 58; and Webster: *l.c.*

has become—it is affirmed by many—superior in strength, endurance, temper, and speed to the original race. No part of the world has pretended to equal England in its breeds of cattle and sheep; the swine of the chief agricultural centres of our islands are equal to those of any portion of Europe, which aims at surpassing the rest of the world in the care devoted to the production of fattened porkers. The ass attains its maximum of perfection in the south of Europe, and there also naturally its hybrid progeny, the mule, is reared in greatest number and finest form. The mountainous countries pay most attention to goats; and in the regions where

A FRENCH AGRICULTURIST.

there is much waste ground, and large forests of oak and beech, immense herds of gaunt, long-legged, coarse-bristled swine are reared on the "mast," which they can pick up under the boughs. Horse-breeding seems to exercise a sharpening effect on the intellect—though possibly a deteriorating one on the morals—and to stimulate habits of personal smartness and neatness of attire. Cattle-breeders are more bucolic. The men who drive fat oxen ought to be, and often are, themselves fat and uncouth, while the rearing of mules is confined to so limited a section of country that it might be difficult to generalise on the counter effect this occupation exercises over the habits of those pursuing it. The herding of sheep and cattle is an essentially humanising occupation: witness the Highland drover and "herd." On the other hand, compare the "rude Carinthian boor," or the Servian, who devotes his life to the rearing of pigs, and becomes in many cases akin to one himself. In Prince Milan's dominions there are said to be—I

state the fact on the authority of Mr. Webster, as the data I have not been able to obtain —1,062 swine to every 1,000 inhabitants, a proportion which more than doubles the next highest ratio, which is supplied by Luxembourg. Spain ranks next in the roll of swine-rearing countries, its hams and sausages figuring in the *cuisine* of many countries of climates and habits widely different from that under which the raw material for them was reared.

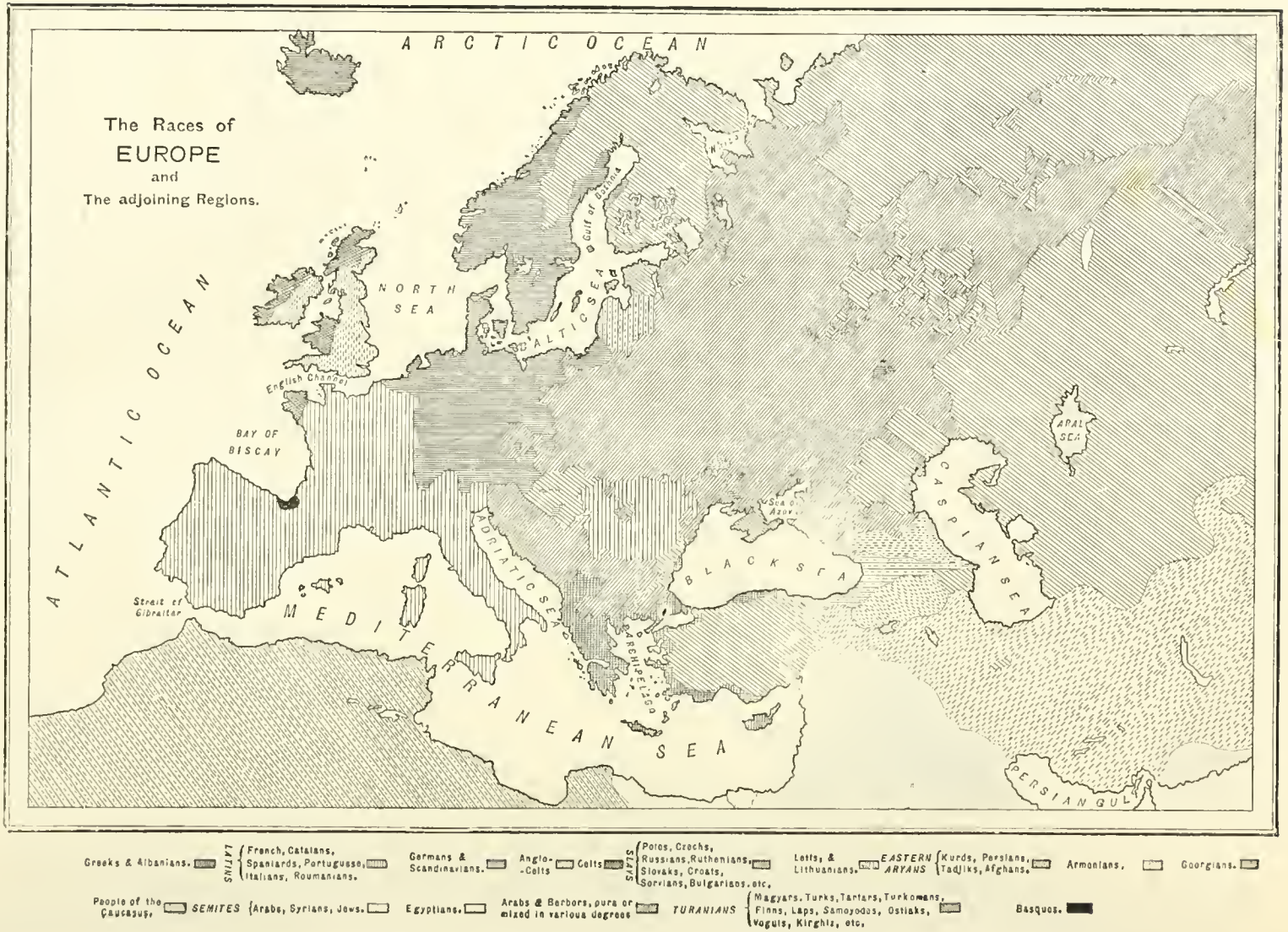
France is the land of *petite culture*, for it is the European country which possesses the greatest number of small proprietors—small yeomen, working their own fields (p. 221), and intent on putting them to the use which is likely to yield the largest returns for the least expenditure of money and toil. Hence fowls attract a vast amount of the Gallic peasant's attention. Eggs, chickens, turkeys, and geese are exported to Great Britain by millions from France, which grows wealthy on the listlessness of the English farmer, or his incapacity for accommodating himself to circumstances. The French eggs are also bought by Austria and Spain, and the breeding of geese has become a proverbial occupation of the people of Pomerania and other parts of Prussia, including the "Reichsland" of Alsace-Lorraine, or, as it is called by its present masters, "Elsass-Lothringen," whose Strasburg pâtes of fattened goose-livers make that city one of the gastronome's favourite shrines. The commerce of Europe we shall touch on by-and-by, when we are speaking of the different countries into which the idiosyncrasies, misfortunes, victories, interests, hates, prejudices, or the accidents of history have divided it, while the people and their development—according to our plan of giving merely the broad generalities regarding regions so well known and described in libraries of early accessible works, from guide-books to Parliamentary folios—will be touched on under the heads of the various groups into which these nationalities may be divided. Meantime, in concluding this part of our subject, it may be fittingly remarked that Europe, whether in the end it is to be eclipsed by the New World, is singularly fitted for the home of a large population with varied tastes and pursuits. No occupation but can in some part of the continent find a field for its exercise; every description of mine is found within its border; all classes of agriculture can be pursued; every industry, from that of the fisher on the high seas to the chopper and charcoal-burner in the backwoods, has space for the exercise of his craft near his home. The country, it might be supposed, is cultivated to the limits of its capabilities. This is not the case. On the contrary, it is impossible to point to a single European country which could not support a greater population than at present, were all the land or other resources of the soil made available and treated according to the teachings of the most advanced science. Even Ireland could grow potatoes for more mouths than at present hungers for them; while in Turkey, as we have seen, great areas of country still lie unoccupied. The timber tracts are now getting denuded in Norway and Sweden, though they are likely to be replanted, as the land from which the timber is cut will yield no crop at all likely to return so large a profit to the proprietors—though trees be what Washington Irving calls "a heroic culture," since the hand which puts the sapling into the ground will not be that which applies the axe to its roots. Even in the settled parts of Sweden —such as the poor province of Småland—there are wide tracts still covered with scraggy birch which have not been cleared. In these districts the smoke of the pioneer's hut can

be seen as in the western backwoods of the New World, though in the one locality there is the newest of civilisation, and in the other the oldest of culture. The same may be said of other regions. All the soil in Europe is, moreover, owned. There is no land for a new-comer—except, perhaps, in a partial degree in Turkey (pp.10–12)—unless he is willing to buy out the owner, who may or may not make the best use of his portion of ground. This, of course, does not include the very considerable tracts in every European country which are incapable of culture, except at a preliminary cost for reclamation altogether out of proportion to their value, or the less extensive areas purposely kept out of cultivation for the sake of pleasure-grounds, either public or private, or as shelters to wild animals, such as deer, foxes, boars, and game birds. In brief, it may be safely affirmed that Europe by more scientific systems of agriculture is quite capable of yielding heavier crops than it has ever done within historical periods. The question of whether the expense will counterbalance the market price of the result can only be settled by the extent to which the finer grain and cattle regions of the New World and of parts of Asia can continue to send us food more cheaply than we can, under our present systems, rear it at our doors. But this is an economic point not calling for further attention from us, though, as the population of Europe will certainly increase — but perhaps not in the ratio of late years — it may require to be considered in due time. Russia will then have the loudest voice in answering the question, since in that empire there are still vast regions ready for the ploughshare, which have never been disturbed "from the making of the world till now."

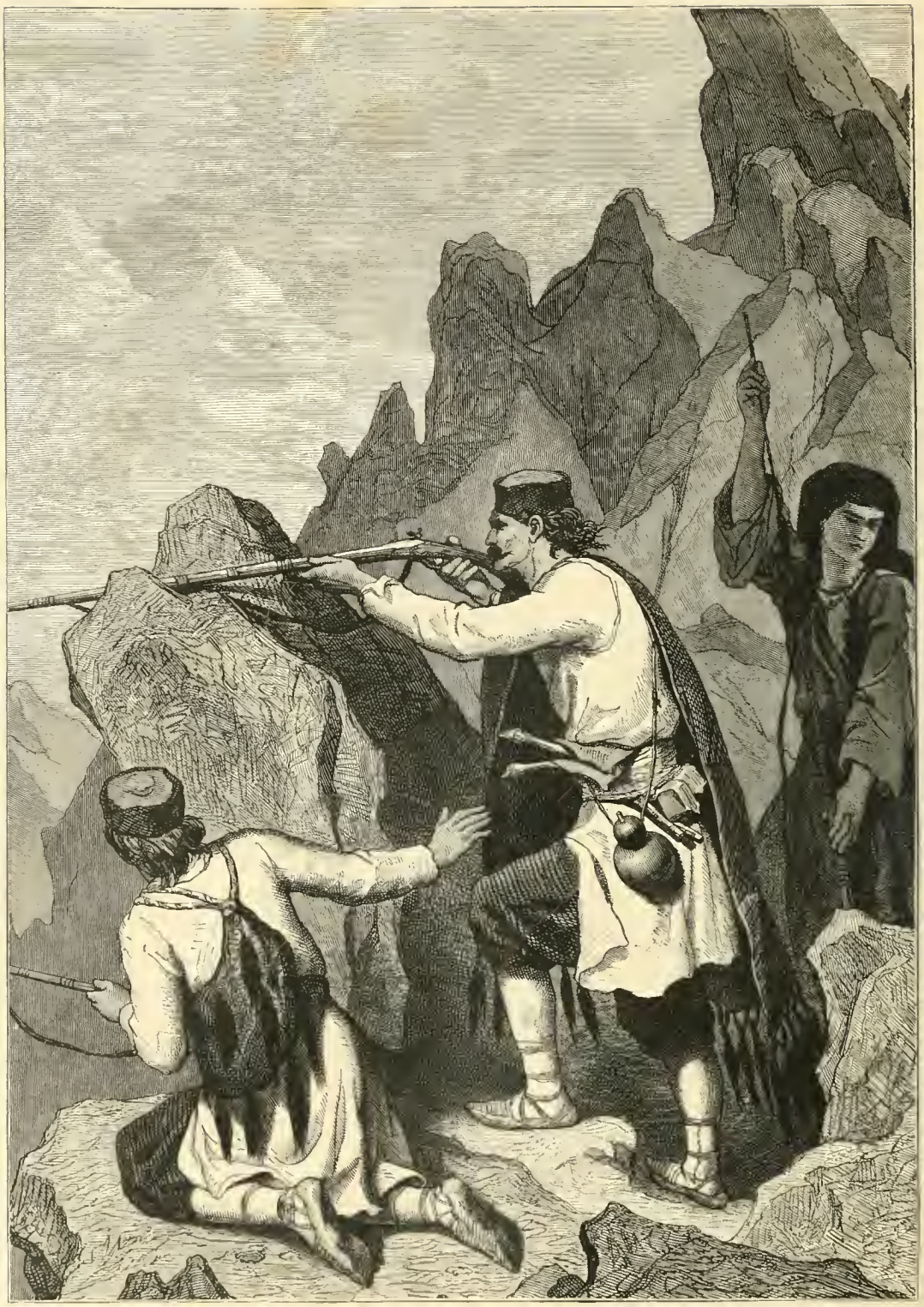
CHAPTER XI.

Europe: The Composition of its Nationalities.

Whence came the European races? We have seen that they are immigrants, but as to the exact part of Asia from whence they migrated to the more fertile and happier lands of the West it is only possible to conjecture, and sometimes even that last hope of the philosopher is bereft from us by the endless complications which interfere with the formulation of what at first sight looks like the smoothest of theories. We know from the evidence of language that the Hindoo race is of the same origin as the majority of the European peoples, and that the oldest of the writings of the former which have been preserved—namely, the "Vedas"—are written in a tongue which at once shows the common source of the European languages, widely apart as many of them seem nowadays. The features—the complexion is a secondary matter—of the two great branches of the races are also the same; while the student of folk lore, or popular tales and superstitions, finds in Europe and Hindostan endless specimens of



THE RACES OF EUROPE AND THE ADJOINING REGIONS.



MONTENEGRINS.

the same fundamental idea so much alike as to leave no reasonable doubt that originally the story, the custom, or the superstition was essentially the same. This Indo-European family, then, consists of two branches: the western, comprising the inhabitants of Europe, with the exception of the Lapps and Basques, the Magyars of Hungary, and the Turks, who belong to the same family; and the eastern, which comprises the Armenians, the Persians, the Afghans, and the people of Northern Hindostan, except, of course, the aborigines proper, and a few of the later incursionists into the country. Language is a dangerous test of race. People cannot well change their features, though they can easily adopt different conventional sounds, to express their thoughts, from what were used by their fathers. The Israelite's nose, lip, and hair we recognise with more or less accuracy in every nation in the world. But were they to have a less marked physiognomy, consequent on their long isolation, owing to the religious persecution and social ostracisation which for 1,800 years has been their undeserved lot, it would be impossible to say whether the particular individual addressed was an Englishman, a German, a Russ, or a native of Assyria, from the mother tongue which he spoke, and which alone for generations he and his forefathers knew. "We can ascertain," writes the author to whom throughout these chapters we have so often been indebted, "whether the majority of a given people have dark hair or light, whether they are dolico-cephalic, meso-cephalic, or brachy-cephalic, or exhibit several varieties of skull; but it has still to be proved how far such characteristics are permanent, and, as permanent, available for our purpose. Europe in every square mile of its surface gives the lie to the supposition that consanguinity is implied by community of speech. Celts are equally eloquent in English and French; Slavonians equally enthusiastic for the dignity of Deutschland or the glory of Greece. It is easy to ascertain how many men in Europe use French as their mother tongue; but we have no means, apart from historic evidence, which applies only to individual instances, of knowing whether three generations back any man's progenitor was a Corsican, a German, or a Breton." The Jews and Gipsies—and for much the same reason—are about the only pure-blooded nationalities, or rather races, in Europe. Even homogeneous as nations may sometimes appear, a very slight historical investigation soon shows how exceedingly mixed they are. The Würtembergers seem Germans of the Germans; but when Freiherre von Hölder sets to analyse that people he discovers that the so-called Teutons are, in reality, a conglomeration of races—Romans, Vindelicians, Rhœtians, Avars, Hungarians, Slavs, Swiss, Swedes, Waldensians, Tyrolese, and Jews; while it requires even less research to show that the Britons are, perhaps, even more mixed still, though to all appearances now so homogeneous. However, language is about all that

A WÜRTEMBERGER.

we have to go upon, and in reality may be usefully applied for purposes of classification; for the nationalities which lie contiguous to each other, or intermingled with each other, are often closely related. Be that as it may, no ethnological fact is more generally received than that Europe is peopled by an alien race, the greater number of whom arrived here at a very remote period—so remote, indeed, that history cannot even guess at its date. These people were the so-called Aryans. That they came all from one part of Asia it would be absurd to imagine, though the likelihood is that they were all nearly related to each other. It is, of course, just possible that some of the so-called Aryans are only the aborigines whom they found in the country, and who intermixed with the conquerors, and learned their language, which they partially adopted, and to a great extent corrupted. That the Asiatic hordes displaced a ruder race there cannot be a doubt. That the race whose remains we find in caves or in "kjökkenmoddinger" are the ancestors of the European people would, perhaps, be difficult to prove, though doubtless the earliest arrivals were sufficiently rude. All the modern languages of Europe, with the exceptions mentioned, are connected by so many affinities that these affinities irresistibly point to the conclusion that at some period they were still more nearly allied, and, in brief, are sprung from a common stock. The children have survived, but the mother has perished. The Aryans we can nowhere point to; Arya is equally problematical; the original Ayran tongue, if it ever existed, has long ago disappeared. But the region east of the Caspian, and north of the Hindoo Koosh and Paropamisan Mountains, was in all probability the home of this people. Impelled by some irresistible impulse, or perhaps by internal disturbances, famine, or other causes, they seem to have come in a great flood into Europe, forming the ancestors of the Celts, who in early times evidently covered nearly the entire inhabited surface of the country, either driving out or intermarrying with the aborigines. Next came the people from whom are sprung the Italians, Greeks, and Teutons, who, like their predecessors, marched through Persia and Asia Minor, crossed into the Promised Land by way of the Hellespont, or possibly between the Black Sea and the Caspian. Then came the Slavic immigration, which is believed to have taken the route by the northern end of the Caspian, the reason for entertaining this opinion being that from the earliest date this people, the ancestors of the Russians and allied peoples, have been found in greatest numbers in that vicinity. Hitherto it would appear that the immigrants confined their attention to the west, though their knowledge of the region must have been altogether vague, since it is not at all likely that any of the early arrivals would return to tell of the fair, well-watered country, covered with wood, abounding in game, and supplying endless pastures for the cattle which they drove along with them. It is also to be remembered that these emigrants would not in every probability march direct to the west, like an army advancing on a position, but came in driblets at long intervals, and by journeys which occupied many years, possibly even centuries. There are, indeed, signs in the Ili Valley (Vol. V., p. 100) of great settlements having existed there in pre-historic times, and all over Central Asia, half buried in sand, are the ruins of what seem to have been considerable towns. These may, perhaps, have been the work of the Aryan on his march to

Europe, the halting-places in which he abode until he was again impelled by force, without or within, to take up his wanderings in the direction of that setting sun which has ever in the history of man's roamings in search of a new home had such an irresistible attraction for him. "Westward the path of Empire takes its way" nowadays as it did in the remote past when the nomads of High Asia were creeping into Europe.

But meantime there was another emigration from the parent home of the race in progress. Hitherto they seemed to have only moved westward; now a section, and perhaps the last remnants of the race—unless the Kaffirs of the Hindoo Koosh* be considered in that light—began their migrations across the Himalayas to the east, until little by little they overspread a great portion of Hindostan. Those of the north-western stock poured through the Himalayan and Hindo Koosh passes into the Punjab, while—judging from the facts we have indicated—the remainder would appear to have gone a little further south and west, until they settled in what is now the Shah's kingdom, and became the progenitors, not of the race at present the dominant one in that region, but of the Medes and Persians of ancient history. From these people the term Aryan has been adopted. The Hindoos are styled in the old Sanscrit writings Aryans;† the Arii were a tribe of ancient Persia, and Ariania a region coterminous with, if not larger than, Persia in former days. The word probably signifies "ploughers," to distinguish a people who tilled the earth from those who, like the wandering Turkish tribes, either herded cattle, or subsisted by plundering others who did. Of these old Aryans Professor Max Müller has, with infinite learning and discrimination, formed a picture which is doubtless in the main correct. From this analysis it would appear that they had houses and towns of some extent, that their rulers were kings reigning under a well-organised system of government, that their wealth consisted of cattle, and that their moral sentiments were so far advanced as to recognise the leading principles which control the actions of men in their relations to parents, children, wives, and other relatives. "Most of the terms connected with the chase and warfare," Müller remarks, "differ in each of the Aryan dialects, while words connected with more peaceful occupations belong generally to the common heirloom of the Aryan language. The proper appreciation of this fact in its general bearing will show how a similar remark, made by Niebuhr with regard to Greek and Latin, requires a different explanation from that which that great scholar, from his more restricted view, was able to give it. It will show that all the Aryan nations had led a long life of peace before they separated, and that their language acquired individuality and nationality as each colony started in search of new homes—new generations forming new terms, connected with the warlike and adventurous life of their onward migrations. Hence, it is not only Greek and Latin, but all Aryan languages have their peaceful words in common; and thus it is that they all differ

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. III., p. 278, and Vol. V., p. 283 of this work, where some account of this people and their country is given; see also Tanner: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1881.

† India, even as late as the time when the Laws of Manu were compiled, is called "Arya-âvarta," the abode of the Aryas.

so strangely in their warlike expressions. Thus, the domestic animals are generally known by the same name in England and in India, while the wild beasts have different names, even in Latin and Greek."

In reading the Vedas, which are the only writings which give any idea of these

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earliest of the common ancestors of the Hindoos and the Europeans, we find that not only did they pasture oxen, but that they tilled the ground, grew grain, made meal, baked bread, wove cloth, and were acquainted with the use of iron and other metals. They could count up to 100—that is, they had names for the numerals up to that sum; and though their tongue was as yet abounding in metaphors to express

what at a later period they invented abstract words, their imagination was fertile, and revelled in their stories of the gods and goddesses, of the wars of the Titans and the elements, of heroes and monsters which—greatly altered, doubtless, but yet with a family likeness—formed subsequently the mythology of Greeks and Romans, Teutons and Slavs alike.

The general characteristics of the Aryan people are: hair straight, fair for the most part, but dark in most of the southern branches of the race, fair skin, and clean-cut, well-formed features. Among the northern branches, though fair hair and skin are common, black hair and swarthy complexions are of frequent occurrence, pointing out an admixture with the aboriginal tribes who had inhabited the country prior to their arrival. Whether these were absolutely what the ethnologist calls "autochthonic"—native to the soil—or conquerors of an earlier date we have not, and in all probability never will have, any means of knowing. Perhaps they displaced the rude people who made the shell-mounds, or it is quite possible they were the makers themselves. At all events, they are the only people of non-Aryan extraction which we know as inhabiting these districts at the present day. They are of the Mongolian race, of whom the most familiar people are the Chinese, and, like them, have a tendency to a yellowish complexion, scanty beard, oblique eyes, flat face, and a nose not the prominent feature which it is in the true Aryan. As we have seen, the Samoyedes, Finns, Lapps, Esthonians, and the semi-Arctic tribes of Northern Russia are of this family. The Magyars and the Turks are also non-Aryan, and the last of the Asiatic arrivals in Europe. The latter are, of course, very recent immigrants, but in the course of four centuries, by continual intermarriage with the Circassians, they have to a great extent lost their Mongolian features, while the Hungarians are usually looked upon as old Scythian emigrants from some region in the vicinity of the Caspian. The Gipsies are also Asiatics and non-Aryans, the descendants, it is believed, of some of the aboriginal tribes of India; while the Jews are, of course, Asiatic, though, as they are without national existence, their origin and relations need not be further discussed. In the Roman time the Etruscans and the Rhœtians were considered alien to the other Italian peoples. They were, perhaps, also non-Aryan, but their affinities are still dubious. The Basques, the Ligurians, and the Iberians are therefore the only non-Aryan people in the south with whom we have any proper historical acquaintance. In historic times the Ligurians inhabited Piedmont, and extended as far west as the mouth of the Rhone, and perhaps south to the Tiber mouth, and north to the Loire, but their language has been lost, and their identification as a separate people is now almost impossible. It is probable that they became co-mingled with the Iberians who occupied the Spanish Peninsula, Sardinia, Corsica, and Sicily, but at the time of the Roman conquest they were almost ceasing to be a people separate from the Celts; and though at the present day they do not exist apart from any of the other races of Europe, there is some reason for believing that they are mainly represented in the Basques, also largely intermixed with Celtic blood, who correspond with them in many particulars, and occupy a corner of Spain where, to use Mr. Webster's language, "from analogy we might expect to find the remains of an ancient race."

Some writers will boldly assert that the Northern Ugrians and the Southern non-Aryans were members, one and the same, of a race which, when the Aryans arrived in

Europe, occupied a wide area, whence they were either exterminated, or were driven north and south. This is not a very well-supported, though an easy, and therefore acceptable, theory. The Finns, Esthonians, Samoyedes, Lapps, and Votiaks have a general likeness to the Basques of the south. But their tongues are in no way the same, except that they both belong to what is called the "agglutinative family"—that is, those in which, like the so-called Turanian and Armorican, "the relational part of thought obtains prominent vocal expression by separate roots joined or *glued* on to the significant roots as terminations," a lower stage than that attained in the "inflectional" development which is that which obtains in the Aryan tongues. Generalisers still bolder—whose assertions have much to support them—will not hesitate to declare that the so-called Aryan immigration was comparatively small, and that it was more the infusion of civilisation among a barbarous series of peoples already occupying Europe than the displacement of these pre-existing races by others. According to these writers—among whom Dr. Hyde Clarke occupies a prominent place—the handful of Aryans were lost among the vast native population, and that what we find common to all the European peoples was simply either what was common to all of them from a period antecedent to the immigration, or was brought by the fresh arrivals. We shall not spend space in discussing this attractive and not unreasonable doctrine. For our purpose it is sufficient to point out that the only people allowed by the vast array of ethnologists to be more or less purely aboriginal are those which have been named, and that the chances are the northern branch came in from Asia, and to some extent, at least, at a comparatively recent date.* These "Ugrians" were doubtless the "Ogres," whose uncouth habits and fierce bravery have been perpetuated in the folk-lore of Europe, in the tales of giants and other uncomfortable neighbours with whom the more cultured and skilful Asiatics had to contend. A study of language enables us to class the European nationalities—exclusive of the non-Aryans mentioned, none of whom, the Turks excepted, have obtained the rank of entirely independent self-governing communities†—into four great sections. The first is the *Celtic*, or Central; the second the *Romanic*, Græco-Latin or Southern; the third the *Germanic*, Teutonic or Northern; and the fourth the *Slavonic*, or North-eastern divisions. To each of these races—so far as they are nationalities—we shall devote a brief space, viewing them more from their political than their linguistic or ethnological relations.‡ In this manner the reader will be best enabled to gain a general idea of Europe and its nationalities than by taking each country separately and devoting to it a few statistical paragraphs, which may be more or less antiquated before the lines reach them, so rapidly changing are the old and highly civilised communities around us.

* Virchow: *La Revue Scientifique de la France* (1874).

† The Lapps are Russian and Swedish subjects; the Esthonians, Votiaks, Samoyedes, and Finns are also liegemen of the Czar; the Basques are Spanish people politically, while the Hungarians, though in former times a separate nationality, are so at present only in so far as they are part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Even then Hungary as a kingdom is peopled by a number of other races besides the Magyars proper.

‡ In "The Peoples of the World," now in preparation as a new, much expanded, and almost entirely re-written edition of "The Races of Mankind," and intended as a companion work to "The Countries of the World," two entire volumes will be devoted to the characteristics, customs, and folk-lore of the various races of Europe. This will also necessitate some fuller account of their political features.

Before doing so, we may point out that the tendency of the culture of Europe has always been in the direction of self-government of the freest description, the nations which have not obtained it being those which, owing either to their origin or to their connection with the later conquerors, are most nearly allied to the Asiatics, whose minds are not yet prepared for the acceptance of such a theory of the rights of man as the permission to fix the laws under which he shall live, the wars in which he shall engage, or the amount of taxes which he is willing to pay for the support of the Government placed by his free will over him. The Slavs are the easiest ruled, and, as their history generally proves, with some exceptions, the most servile to their superiors; the Celts are the most uneasy under any government—"good soldiers, but bad subjects," as Tacitus so acutely characterised them; while the conglomeration of semi-barbarous races in the Balkan Peninsula have only recently been rising against the despotic masters under whom for ages they have lived. Mountain communities are those which have their own way most easily, partly because of the love which mountaineers almost invariably feel for their native land, partly owing to the difficulty which a despot finds in reaching them, and also, no doubt, owing to the fact that their country is usually too poor to tempt the greed of the conqueror of the rich and easily accessible plains below. Republicanism is not, however, in favour. The greatest States of Europe—France for the moment excepted—are monarchies, in which the hereditary ruler's powers are checked by various contrivances, in which the different elements in the State have a voice more or less proportioned to their number and importance, and in which the laws are made by legislatures, the most influential section of which is elected by the free vote of the people. France, which has several times changed its government during the present century in all directions, varying from an almost pure democracy to an equally absolute imperialism, Switzerland, San Marino, and Andorra, in the Pyrenees, are the only republics. The two last are, however, only nominally so, as the one is to a certain extent controlled by Italy, and the other by France and Spain combined. In point of wealth and power, Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Austria rank highest; then come Italy, Spain, and Sweden; and last of all, Turkey, the Netherlands, Belgium, Portugal, and Denmark.

Educationally the Germanic nations are the highest, the Romanic next, and the Slavonic people the most illiterate of all. The most bigoted, from a religious point of view, and the least moral, are also the Romanic and Slavonic people. The most moral, and at the same time most liberal to others not of the same views as themselves, are the Germanic races, including the British people, when not of purely Celtic origin, as in Ireland, and partially in the north of Scotland, Wales, and Cornwall, where intensity of sectarian feeling, different in kind but not in degree, prevails. Paganism is in Europe confined solely to the wandering tribes of the extreme north. The rest of the people are monotheists, or worshippers of one God; the least intelligent being adherents of the Greek and Latin sections of the Catholic Church; the smaller but most intellectual of the Protestant or reformed branch of that communion. Mohammedanism is the faith of the Turks, and of some of the minor races subjected by them. But it makes few, if any, converts, and is not nowadays aggressive. Neither is the Greek Church in modern times inclined to

extend its borders beyond the countries in which it is found as the established form of Christianity. Roman Catholicism and Protestantism are, on the contrary, keenly proselytising faiths, and are rapidly extending their boundaries, not so much in Europe, where there is an exchange of adherents pretty equally counterbalanced the one by the other, but in Pagan countries outside of Europe. The Jews are the only other people whose religion bulks largely in Europe, though there is, perhaps, not a single belief held by

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any body of mankind which does not find some adherent within the bounds of the largely tolerant European communities.

The languages of Europe are more numerous than its races, and infinitely more varied than its nationalities; albeit the philologist would only class the greater number of them as dialects of a few main stocks. For instance, about sixty are usually considered to be spoken within the limits of the continent, not including Greek, Latin, Hebrew, and Old Slavonic, which are dead tongues, still used in literature or in the liturgies of the Church: or others, which, like Cornish, Oscan, Umbrian, Gothic, Old Norse, Old Saxon, Old High German, Old Prussian, and Mosarabic, are dead to all save the philologist.

Among the Aryan languages are the greater number of those still in use by the civilised nations of Europe. The old Greek tongue is not now spoken. Among the peoples which comprised the ancient Eastern Empire a rude dialect, known as Romaic, is spoken, and in the kingdom of Greece an attempt has been made to further purify the tongue by going back to the original language, as we know it in the classical authors. The result is modern Greek, a kind of hybrid between the rude dialect of the Greeks of the Balkan Peninsula and the polished language at which the philological patriots aimed. Latin is quite dead; but French and Italian, in its various *patois*—some of which are scarcely recognisable as the tongue so-called—Spanish, Walloon, and Roumanian, are derived from it. All the Germanic people speak forms of the old Gothic. The Celtic dialects are on the decay. Welsh is the most vital; but the Breton, Scottish Highlander, and Irishman are rapidly learning other languages, while Cornish became extinct as a spoken tongue near the close of last century. The Scottish Celts had never a great literature; the Erse people were more fortunate in their literary memorials; the Welsh still publish newspapers and magazines, in addition to various books, original and translated, in their own tongue.

The Slavs speak some seventeen dialects, and use both the Cyrillian and the Latin alphabets.

The Semetic tongues are exotics in Europe. Even Hebrew is only the Jews' ecclesiastical language. Arabic, once spoken in Southern Spain, Sicily, and part of Italy, is now only understood as a vernacular by the educated classes of Turkey; and Maltese is mainly Italian, with an admixture of Arabic.

The principal Finno-Tartaric languages are Turkish, Hungarian, and French in its various dialects. Basque is spoken in the Pyrenæan districts of France and Spain, but is dying out. The Gipsies speak a rude dialect, containing many Indian words, but a great many more picked up from the vulgar speech of the countries in which they wander.*

CHAPTER XII.

EUROPE: ITS POLITICAL DIVISIONS; THE SLAV STATES.

THE Celts as a nation, or as a set of nationalities, do not exist. Most probably—though not certainly—the first of the Aryan hordes who found their way into Europe, they also became the most widely diffused. When the Roman conquests enabled us for the first time to gain a glimpse of the barbarous regions lying outside the Italian Peninsula, we find them spread over most of the inhabited parts of Europe, and the evidence of place names points

* "Die Völker Russland" Petermann's *Geographische Mittheilungen* (1877). Webster: "Europe" *l.c.*, *passim*, and the various works quoted by him.

to the roving Celt having at one time occupied a vastly greater area than that to which he had soon to confine himself. From the Ebro in Spain, through France, to the Rhine mouth, the country was altogether Celtic, and judging from the traces they have left behind them, these Celtic Aryans seem to have pushed their way up the valley of the Danube, leaving traces of their march in the Boii or Celtic tribe who gave their name to the now Teutonised country of Bavaria. Probably, according to Virchow, they reached Southern Gaul and Spain about the sixth century B.C.; from thence they crossed into Britain. They thus form the basis of a large portion of the most powerful nationalities of Europe, and though at present their tongue is spoken by, it is believed, only about 4,100,000 people, their blood runs in the greater number of the British people, who, though they might have altered their language, could not so easily alter their race, this race never having been exterminated by the Saxon invaders, as some historians would assert, on the weakest possible grounds. "Bas Breton," spoken by many people in Brittany, is a Celtic tongue, and in this western corner of France the people are to this day essentially Celtic. The Erse or Irish tongue, is another Celtic dialect, still spoken as their sole language by a great number of people in the western section and off-lying islands of Ireland. The Welsh are an even more important Celtic people, while the Highlanders of Scotland are the only other Celtic-speaking people in Europe. The Basques are—as we have seen—probably aborigines, tinged with Celtic elements, while the Cornish people are Celts who have ceased to speak their ancient dialect.

The Slav People.

The *Slavonic* races are almost as widespread in Europe, and infinitely more important. For not only are they not a race who speak a dozen tongues, but they are nearly all living and increasing nationalities which threaten to still further enlarge their boundaries in Europe. Slavs indeed exist in almost every kingdom of Central, Northern, and Southern Europe, while the great Empire of Russia, though ruled by a race originally descended from a Scandinavian stock—that of Rurik and his followers—and tinctured with Tartar and other elements, is, to all intents and purposes, pure Slavonic (p. 228).

It is rare to hear of a European war without hearing of the Slavs. They seem ubiquitous. They are to the front when the Poles rebel; anon their voice is the loudest when the Hungarians seek a Constitution, while the head and front—and some will even say the offending—of the never-ending Eastern Question is still the people without a local name or habitation. The causes of the Servo-Turkish war of 1876, which ripened into the more terrible Russo-Turkish struggle, were many, but lie, as usual, much deeper than the superficial observer, with a political theory to support, may imagine. It commenced with the Bosnian and Herzegovinian "rebellion," it drew out the Montenegrins, and eventually it brought down on the Tartar borders the great brother of the Slavic fraternity from the north. In reality, it was a war of race and a war of religions, and hence, though healed for a time by the salve of diplomacy, it will break out afresh so long as the evil thing—the great disturbing cause—remains. No doubt ambition, revenge, lust of power, cruelty, and that earth-hunger which periodically afflicts South-eastern Europe, were factors in this struggle, "bequeathed

from bleeding sire to son." But these move the Courts, not the People. The yearning after nationality, the love of kindred, sprung of the same forefathers, speaking the same tongue, and worshipping the same God, after the same fashion, are the nobler causes, the deeper moving springs of the bloodshed at which Latin and Teutonic Europe has at uncertain intervals to look at with sorrowful interest, and in which she is now and then compelled to share. The Slavic Empire, and the dream of Panslavism, are at the bottom of it all; and though other and more patent causes ever now and again conceal this real one, yet it is certain in the end to come to the surface. The Slavonic people were, less than three years ago, at war with the Tartars. How, then, have the Slavs come to be disturbing elements in the peace of Europe?

The Selavs, Slavs, or Slavonians—for owing to the disagreeable suggestiveness of the name they dislike to have their name spelled Slaves—is a title applied to a group of nationalities which have spread from the Elbe to Kamschatka, and from the Arctic Ocean to the Adriatic, the whole of Eastern Europe being dotted by their sporadic septs. Their origin is as obscure as the etymology of their name. They were settled in Servia at least as early as the sixth century, and probably occupied the regions they are now scattered over before the dawn of history. We see their branches, but we cannot find their root. It is the Slavonic Aryan who periodically faces the Asiatic Turk, and frequently it is the Asiatic Jew and the Ugrian Magyar, first cousins of the Osmanli Ottoman, and last arrived of all the Asiatic hordes, who is the warmest sympathiser with this "turbaned Paynim."

The Slavs call themselves Slowne or Slowane, and say that their name means "articulate," as distinguished from other nations, whom they call Niemetz or "mutes." The old writers call them Sarmatians or Scythians, and their original name seems to have been Wends and Serbs. At one period they were a number of wandering tribes; but at some time in the seventh century they ceased their migrations, and crystallised as it were their roaming tribesmen into independent states and branches, the languages of which have gradually altered into dialects of the old Slavic mother-tongue. Thus we have the Russian Slavs—the most powerful of all the divisions—for the Tartar elements in European Muscovy are almost eliminated. The Tartars overran Russia, but they never absorbed into their midst the original Slavic tribes, who ousted them, and finally turned the tables of conquest on them. Then we have the Bulgarian branch, formerly under the rule of the Turk. The Bulgarians are probably of all the Slavs the most mixed with Turkish and other race elements; but they are essentially Slavs in language and origin, and not Turks either in nationality or religion. Then there is the Illyrian branch, comprising the Servians, the Croats, and the Wends of Austria. The above are embraced in the South-Eastern Division, but in the Western there is a second group of Slavic nationalities or broken races. These are the Poles, Silesians, and Pomeranians—all either under the Prussian or Russian rule; the Czechs or Bohemians, and the Polabians or Slavic tribes of North Germany, who are now almost absorbed into the Teutonic population which displaced them. Russia, Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro are the only independent Slavic kingdoms or principalities which exist at the present time. Yet at one time they were numerous, for Bohemia, Moravia, Bulgaria, Poland, and half a dozen more were all Slavic

powers with their own rulers. The Polabians, indeed, are about the only Slavic people who have not, at one time or another, either possessed or aspired at independence. Altogether, there are in Europe no less than eighty-two millions of this scattered yet homogeneous race. Russia has the lion's share of these people, and, as a right, claims to be their champion. If we are to credit Schaffarik's tables, there are 55,000,000 Russian and Ruthenian Slavs; they constitute the chief people of the Northern Empire. The Poles, or Lekh, number 9,700,000; the Bohemians (including the Czechs, Moravians, and Slovaks of Hungary), 7,000,000; the Lusatians (Serbs) of Saxony, who once occupied much of the country and of Prussia, and who, as the "Vandali Silingi" aided the Goths in the conquest of Spain and gave their name to Andalusia (the Vandal-land), 142,000; the Illyrians (including the Servians, Montenegrins, Croatians, Dalmatians, Bosniaks, the Rusniaks or Little Russians of Gallicia and Bukhovinia, Wends and Carinthians of Austria), 7,246,000; and the Bulgarians, 3,587,000, though the population of the Principality of Bulgaria is under 2,000,000. To these are sometimes added the Letts or Lithuanians of Russia and Prussia, numbering over 2,000,000; and some smaller and equally doubtful members of the Slav family.

The Slavic people are thus the remnants of many broken kingdoms, speaking dialects of the same tongue, and feeling towards each other as brothers; yet, except in the cases mentioned, they have neither name nor place among the nations of Europe. Indeed, as in the case of Austria, they are part of an empire essentially German in character and language, but also comprising Magyars, who are jealous of them, and feel friendship for their kinsman, the Turk, whose name is hateful to every true Slav. In Turkey their condition was infinitely worse, for in Austria they are a power in the State, and may yet be one of the powers still more dominant. Under the Mussulman they were an enslaved people, in Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Bulgaria, even where, as in some cases, they became renegades to their ancient faith to conciliate the conqueror. In the two independent Principalities of Montenegro and Servia they are free, but they only gained their freedom after many a bloody struggle. In Russia they are the predominating race, though the Poles form a disturbing element amongst them. In Prussia the Poles of Posen are the principal Slavic people, though there are fragments of other races now Slavic only in name. In Saxony there are the Lusatians, in Hanover the entirely Germanised Linones of Lüneberg, and in the time of Charlemagne they probably covered the whole region to the east of the Elbe.

With the exception of the renegades of Turkey proper, the Slavs are all Christians in name at least; though, owing to their being long forced to practise their religion under persecution and by sufferance, their rites are often very corrupt. But they are Christians of two types—the Roman and the Greek. The Bohemians and the Poles got their civilisation and Christianity from Rome. Accordingly, they are Roman Catholics. The Servians and the Russians got theirs from Greece, and in consequence use the Greek or Cyrillian alphabet, think as the Greeks did, and are Christians of the Greek Church. The one numbers about 54,011,000 believers, the other only 19,359,000. The United Greek Church has 2,990,000 adherents, the Protestant faith 1,531,000; while the Mohammedans —even when they are only so in name—do not claim more than 800,000 Slavs as entitled to rank under the Crescent. These divided counsels have probably been one of the

BULGARIAN PEASANTS.

causes why the Slavs—unlike the Germanic and Romanic races—have never produced anything worthy of the name of a national literature. Another reason is that in the regions where they come into contact with the best intellectual life, their tongue has been crushed out of vigour by the pressure of the German, while the section of Europe where it has obtained fresh extension is that furthest removed from the culture of the rest of the Continent. The Slavs are thus mostly Greek Christians, and to be a co-religionist means in Russia and Servia something more than to "belong to the same Church" among the Anglo-Saxons. It is a holy claim to the protection and sympathy—even to the shedding of blood—of all who worship at the same altar.

Here, then, we have the meaning of Panslavism. It is a power broader than the boundaries which diplomats have set up—more lasting than the artificial restrictions of treaties. It is the irresistible drawing together of the broken race elements from among the conquering nations into one harmonious whole. It is the desire, at any cost, to disentangle the ravelled skein of races, and draw out the threads which speak the Slavic tongue and are kin to the Slavic blood. But Panslavism means something more. "In Poland," writes Dr. Latham, "it means absolute equality between the Pole and the Russian, the two separate nationalities being merged under the great generality of Slavonism; in Russia it means the propagation of the Greek creed, and the displacement of such languages as the Turk and Rumanyo by the Russian or Servian; in Servia and Montenegro it means dislike to all things Ottoman; and in Hungary, the denial of the right of predominance to the Magyar minority. It means, in short, different things in different places. It means, however, most specially, the non-recognition of the assumed superiority in literature and science on the part of the Germans, and the development of the Slavonic, whose domain shall be co-extensive with the language. It began in Bohemia, where Slavonic civilisation is the highest, and where the German contact is the least satisfactory." This distribution of the Slavs may be easily traced on the ethnographical map (p. 224), compiled from Latham, Prichard, Reclus, and other authorities, which also displays in a graphic form the extension of the other principal divisions of the European nationalities.

The physical geography of the Balkan Peninsula has already been sketched, while the Turks' share of it has been described in sufficient detail (pp. 15, 16). We have also noted the strange conglomeration of races who have, in the course of ages, fixed their homes in this favoured portion of South-eastern Europe. Asiatics, Greeks, Latins, Gipsies, Jews, Slavs, all live here in some quarters in tolerable amity; in others, only in the peace which the stronger race can compel the weaker to keep. It is calculated that over 11,000,000 people inhabit the peninsula, and though, until recently, the Turks were the dominant nationality, yet in reality they do not constitute over one-sixth of the entire population, and even these are confined to a few localities. The Greeks are not quite so numerous, but are the most intellectual portion of the Balkanese. The Albanians (pp. 16-22), of mixed Greek and Latin origin, are still fewer, and, though warlike, are only semi-civilised, and take little share in the intellectual or commercial life of the country, though, within the last two years, the Albanian League has practically declared its independence of the Sultan, and acts as if its leaders were the heads of a sovereign State. Being

Mohammedan their religious antipathies keep them apart from the Greeks, while their racial sympathies put any idea of joining with the Montenegrins out of the question. The end of the difficulty will be that, sooner or later, the Albanians will become autonomous, or independent, until the strong power which is eventually to be master of the Balkan finds it convenient to absorb it into the Empire.

We now come to the little Slav Powers in this region which have now obtained their independence. Up to the years 1877-78, nearly the entire country was under Turkish rule. At an earlier date Roumania, which is a Latin principality, had obtained partial independence, the only condition being that it should pay tribute to Turkey. Servia and Montenegro were also suffragans of the Turk, while the rest of the country was an integral part of the Ottoman Empire. By the Treaty of Berlin Roumania was erected into a perfectly independent principality, which, in March, 1881, was declared to be a kingdom, and the same rank was accorded Servia and Montenegro, each with some addition of territory at the expense of Turkey; while Bulgaria was constituted a principality, owing direct allegiance to the Sultan, by whom its prince received investiture; and Eastern Roumelia, to all intents and purposes a part of Bulgaria, obtained a certain degree of autonomy under a governor appointed by the Sultan, who remained its suzerain. But the disintegration of the Balkan Peninsula as a portion of the Turkish Empire did not end here. Bosnia and Herzegovina were occupied by Austria, and as there was no term fixed for the continuance of the custody, the end will undoubtedly be their incorporation with her province of Slavonia. Even then the comparatively limited portions of the conquests of Mohammed which remained to Abdul Hamid are likely to be still further diminished, since Southern Thessaly and Epirus have been all but promised to Greece as the price of her abstention from war in 1877-8; and as the Sultan does not appear very willing to take the advice of the Powers in Council, the chances are that before long Greece will attempt to take what her mind is set on—by force.

Servia: Montenegro.

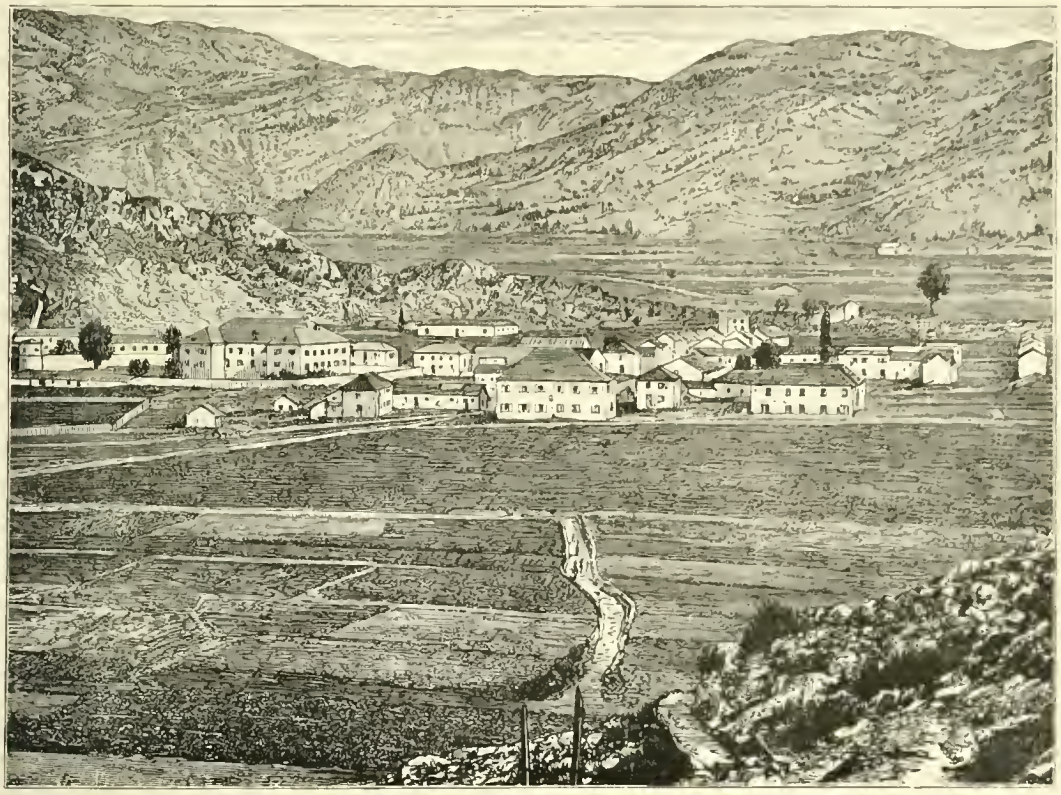
Servia is a country about the size of Switzerland, though not so mountainous, its principal area being comprised between the Western Balkans and Illyrian mountains. The people are not industrious. Manual labour and agriculture are distasteful to them; hence tillage is little pursued in the principality, and even cattle-raising is not in favour. A few hedged fields and clearings may be seen here and there, but the greater portion of this pleasant, picturesque region of mountains and plains is covered with woods, under the shade of which great herds of swine feed on the acorns which fall from the oaks that form the principal trees in the forests. Altogether, the principality has an area of 19,000 square miles, or nearly two-thirds that of Scotland. Of this area about 2,000,000 acres are under cultivation, that is, about one-sixth against one-fourth in Scotland. Of the remaining five-sixths a considerable portion is capable of yielding crops, but the greater part is composed of inaccessible mountains, forests, and rocky soil too poor to pay for breaking up. In the valleys the loam will often attain a depth of six feet. The hillsides

grow excellent grapes, and even on the elevated table-lands wheat and maize of excellent quality are reared. The entire population is, by the census of 1878, 1,682,452, of

ALBANIAN SHEPHERDESS.

whom about nine-tenths subsist entirely by agriculture. The peasant of the old school lives and cultivates his land in the most primitive manner possible, while his neighbour who has imbibed modern ideas, since national education has become more advanced, is a farmer of a better type. Cotton and flax are spun by hand, and woven in hand-looms.

Woollen cloth and goat-hair carpets are also made in the same simple fashion, mills and factories being in Servia institutions yet to be established. The copper, gold, zinc, lead, and other ores, like the coal which abounds in the principality, have never been properly worked, owing to the difficulties of transport and other causes, though the railways, which have at last begun to penetrate the country, will, it is expected, give a wonderful impetus to the development of these sources of national wealth. The country abounds still in immense forests of oak and other trees, but, as Mr. Baker points out, they are being ruined



VIEW OF CETINJE, MONTENEGRO.

by reckless treatment. When a peasant is in want of wood for repairs or for fuel, he fells twice as much timber as is required, and without any regard to the question of what trees ought to be felled and what ought to stand. Under this system, or want of system, many forests have already vanished, and should it be continued, the disappearance of the remainder is only a question of time.*

The only town of any importance in the country is Belgrade, the capital (28,000 inhabitants), a city fortress which was long the central point at which Turks and Austrians alike aimed. Up to the year 1829, Servia was an integral part of the Turkish Empire, before which it fell, after having been for a time during the four-

* "Foreign Office Consular Reports," 1880; *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1880, p. 572.

teenth century a powerful monarchy, with boundaries stretching far beyond those to which it has since been limited. In 1877 it threw off the Turkish supremacy, which at this period consisted solely in paying tribute and acknowledging the Sultan's suzerainty, and at present Prince Milan, descended from the peasant who first raised the standard of revolt against the Turks, rules as an independent monarch, with the aid of a Cabinet, a Senate, and a National Assembly, or "Narodna-Skupstina." The revenue is about £790,000, and the expenditure less. Up to the year 1876 there was no national debt, but since that date it has attained the magnitude of £1,400,000. The trade of the country is mainly with Austria, the exports being chiefly swine, for which there is a good demand in Hungary. They also do a little commerce with Turkey and Roumania, though, owing to the want of roads and other modes of communication, the resources of Servia are still in an undeveloped condition.*

Montenegro—to use its Venetian name, though in the language of the neighbouring countries it is Karadagh, or Czernagora, "the black mountain,"—was the first portion of the Balkans to throw off the Turkish yoke. It also obtained accessions of territory by the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin, though even with the addition of Dulcigno and neighbouring district the country is not much larger than Devonshire. The people number about 236,000, all trained as soldiers, under a Prince, or Hospodar, who is now a limited monarch. The capital is Cetinje, on the top of the mountain (p. 241). At best it is only an insignificant village, the sole building of any importance being the Prince's palace. Even this is of very modest dimensions. The people are as yet semi-barbarous, and far behind in education and the arts. The revenue is estimated at £45,000 per annum, and as the loan raised in 1876 was paid off by the Russian Government, there is not at present any national debt. The Prince, who is a descendant of the Prince-Bishop who led the rebellion against the Turks in 1697, may be described as almost a suffragan of the Czar of Russia. Under his control he has always been, and even yet his modest civil list of £350 per annum is supplemented by a gift of £1,400 from the St. Petersburg exchequer, and £2,000 from that of Vienna. At one time the ruler was the spiritual as well as the political head of the State. But from 1825 the Montenegrin church has been governed by a Bishop appointed by the Holy Synod of Russia. Its commerce is trifling, and consists of much the same articles as that of Servia.†

Bosnia: Bulgaria: Eastern Roumelia.

Bosnia and Herzegovina may be described as Austrian possessions, or rather provinces ruled by Austria, though nominally under the suzerainty of the Sultan. The country is, on the whole, a fine one. It is mountainous and well wooded, but the valleys are

* Kanitz: "Serbien" (1868); Mijatovics: "History of Modern Serbia" (1872); Gambier: "Servia" (1873); Denton: "Servia and the Servians" (1862), etc.

† Denton: "Montenegro" (1877); Forsyth: "The Slavonic Provinces South of the Danube" (1876); Kovalevsky: "Montenegro and the Slavonic Countries"—in Russian—(1877); and *Times*, Sept. 27th, 1880, for a description of the country at that date.

rich, and in many places industriously cultivated. The grain and fruit crops are abundant, while the sheep, goat, swine, and horses of Bosnia and Herzegovina are celebrated in the neighbouring countries to which they are exported. But roads having never either been improved or made during the Turkish rule, the country is not as yet in much more than a state of nature, dotted here and there by cultivated spots or by towns which have grown without much aid from the arts or civilisation of the world outside their boundaries.

Since the Austrian occupation something has been done to develop its resources. The country is rich in minerals which, under proper guarantees for the protection of life and property, would speedily be developed by foreign capitalists. However, until roads are in a better condition, railways built, and the long-disturbed condition of the region a matter of history, Bosnia and Herzegovina will continue in their present backward condition. There are several towns, the principal of which is Serai-Bosna, or Serajevo, where the trade of the country concentrates. This, like the minor "cities" of the region, is half fortress, half residential portion. The upper part is the castle; then comes the town often surrounded by ditches and walls, and outside of all the suburbs inhabited by a class too poor to care for the protection of the "Grad" or citadel, or the "Varos" or walled town.

Bosnia and Herzegovina have undergone many changes since they passed from under the power of the Roman Empire. The Bans of Bosnia were for a time subject to the Kings of Hungary, but like the Herzegovina, which for a time had been the dukedom of Saba,* under the protection of the Venetians, the country fell under the Turkish yoke; and, in spite of numerous revolts, continued in this condition up to the date of the Treaty of Berlin.

The Bosnians and the people of Herzegovina are of a different race from the Osmanli Turks, notwithstanding the fact that many of them are of the Moslem faith. But, like the Servians and Bulgarians, some of whom likewise became perverts in order to escape persecution, the old Bosnian nobility to save their lands—and often their lives—renounced Christianity and soon were metamorphosed into Begs and Agas. But their outward change of faith did not alter their nature. They never were kindly disposed to the conqueror, who did little to win them over to his side. Excluded from office by the jealousy of the Constantinople officials, they were too proud to engage in agriculture, and lived poor and powerless, year by year, witnessing their castles crumbling more and more into decay. Their rank as "Spahis," or feudal military chiefs, was abolished, and the tithe they at one time received from the peasant was paid into the Turkish treasury. "Ignorant, corrupt, indolent, and wholly incapable of organisation or combined action," they made no efforts to obtain their independence when the other subject States of the Balkan Peninsula were rising so successfully. It is true that in the Herzegovina was first raised the standard of revolt, which ended with the terrible Russo-Turkish War. But the revolt was never more than half-hearted, while the resistance to the Austrian occupation was mainly due to a few fanatics, little if at all aided by the "upper classes."

* Hence called Herzegovina, *i.e.*, "Herzogthan," or the Dukedom.

Bosnia is a rugged mountainous country. Herzegovina is flatter, and much wilder. But otherwise the two districts do not differ widely: the people in both are equally ignorant, and both provinces in backwardness are about on a par.*

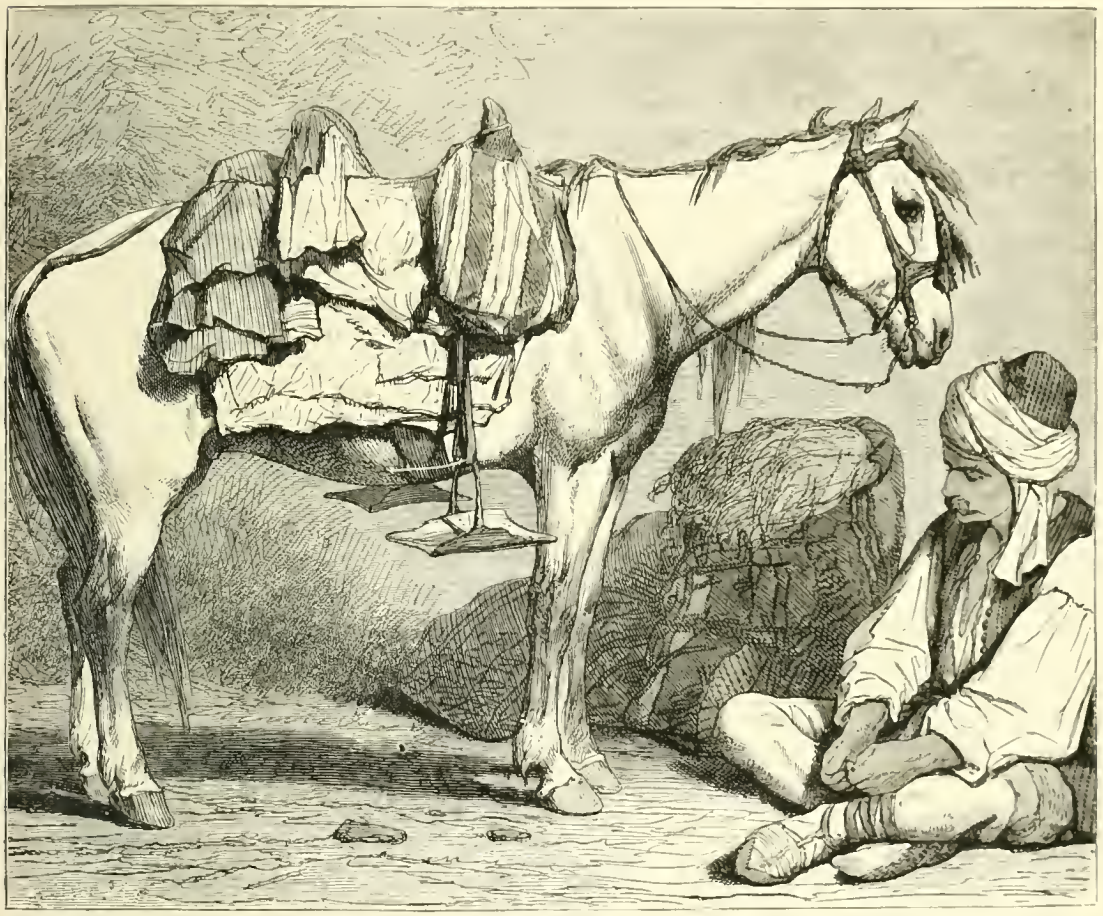
Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia.—These two more or less independent or autonomous States are also the outcome of the Treaty of Berlin. The first is on the northern slope of the Balkans, and is under a German Prince, elected by the constituent assembly. With the exception of paying interest to the Porte, and bearing a portion of the debt of the Turkish Empire, it is practically independent. The country is fertile and well watered, and capable of growing great quantities of wheat and maize, and of pasturing sheep and cattle. The people (pp. 21, 22, 23, 237) are, as we have seen, backward and rather degraded. Originally of Finnish origin, they occupied the country of a Slavonic race, and became so incorporated with them that they have, ever since history has taken cognisance of them, spoken a Slav dialect, and are at present Christians of the Greek form of Catholicism. Their customs are also Slavonic, and though their long oppression by the Turks has rooted out of them many of those ancient qualities which made the Kingdom of Bulgaria the terror of the Greek Emperors and even of the less effeminate Turkish conquerors, the people are said not to be without good qualities, which may eventually render them fit for self-rule, and their country a prosperous one, so long as they keep out of these civil broils, into which it is, however, only too likely that they will plunge. The population is under 2,000,000, but the cities are neither numerous nor populous, though built in a style much superior to those in the other Slavonic States mentioned. Sofia, the capital, contains 18,000 people; Tirnova (p. 248), at one time the metropolis, 12,000; Widin, 19,000; Rustchuk, 23,000; and Varna, 16,000. But with the exception of the fact that the Prince has a civil list of £24,000 per annum, statistics of revenue, commerce, and education are still sadly wanting for the principality which a few years ago bulked so largely in the eyes of Europe.†

Eastern Roumelia was, up to the date of the Berlin Treaty, a part of Turkey proper, though inhabited mainly by Bulgarian Christians. It is one of the most charming portions of the Sultan's dominions, consisting for the most part of undulating hills, and valleys blooming with vegetation and crops, among which the "gardens of Gule," or the rose-fields (p. 249) of the Balkan base, from the produce of which the famous "attar" is made, rank prominently. The cities of this region are among the best in Turkey. Philippopolis, at the head of navigation on the Maritza, is a flourishing place, and is famous as one of the towns founded by Philip, father of Alexander the Great; Slevno and Kesanlik are prosperous, owing to the attar of roses trade which centres there; and Burgas, on the

* Evans: "Through Bosnia and Herzegovina on Foot" (1876); "Illyrian Letters" (1878); Von Thoemmel: "Beschreibung des Vilayet Bosnien" (1870); Sax: "Skizzen über die Bewohner Bosniens" (1864); Roskievicz: "Bosnia und Herzegovina" (1867); Maurer: "Reise d. Bosnien" (1870); Marbeau: "La Bosnie depuis l'occupation Austro-Hongroise" (1880); the works of Misses Irby and Mangles, and the Consular Reports for 1872 and following years.

† Barkley: "Between the Danube and the Black Sea" (1876); "Bulgaria before the War" (1877); Tozer: "The Highlands of Turkey" (1869); "Bradaska in Petermann's *Geographische Mittheilungen*" (1869); St. Clair and Brophy: "Residence in Bulgaria" (1869); "Lejean: "Ethnographie de la Turquie" (1861).

Black Sea, is the principal port of the country. Altogether, it comprises about 13,500 square miles, inhabited by a population estimated at 751,000. Of these more than one-half are Christians, who, however, live on terms of tolerable amity with their Mohammedan neighbours, the greater portion of whom are, nevertheless, of the same race, and in many cases speak the same language. The province is now quite autonomous, under a Christian governor, nominated by the Sultan (with the consent of the Powers) for a term



A BOSNIAN PEASANT.

of five years. Its degree of independence is therefore much less than that of Bulgaria; and, moreover, though the province has its own militia, the Porte—that is, the ministry of the Sultan—has the right of occupying certain positions on the Balkan slopes should this step be considered necessary for the purposes of defence. Under these circumstances it is not remarkable to find that the Roumelians are already plotting for union with their brethren on the other side of the range, and entire independence of Turkey. It is also likely enough to be accurately stated that the province is not making much progress under the new system. The people have been too long accustomed to the old state of

affairs to quite appreciate the advantages of ruling themselves; and, rejoicing in their newly-found freedom, occupy themselves more in the enticing pastime of conspiring against their rulers than in securing the physical comfort which they might enjoy under the altered state of affairs. The actual revenue of the province is not known, but it was believed that it might yield a public income of £904,000, a sum more than amply sufficient for every purpose of honest government.

Russia.

Were we engaged in tracing the distribution of the Slav race, instead of simply recording the States into which they have formed themselves, or on which they have attained the upper hand as the ruling class, we should have to wander into Austria, where there are great numbers of Slav people. But the Austro-Hungarian monarchy is essentially a German empire, as the ruling class is of that nationality, though in reality it comprises Magyars and numerous other races, who outnumber the Germans proper. The Turks have also many Slavs under their rule in addition to those which obtained their entire or partial freedom, and in Germany there are three millions of Slavs, under the name of Poles, Wends, Lithuanians, and Czechs. Russia is, however, essentially *the* Slavonic monarchy. Within its bounds there are numerous races, Asiatic and European. The Finns, under which family are included the Esthonians and Livonians of the Baltic provinces, the Finns, Qwains, and Karelians of Finland, the Lapps, the Scrians, and Permians of the Ural region; the Votiaks, the Teheremisses, the Mordva, and the Tehuvash. These Finns are generally fair-haired people, and in most cases Christians, though not of the orthodox order. The Tartar tribes are on the contrary invariably Mohammedan, and dark-skinned. The Kalmouks, Bashkirs, Nogais, and Tartars of the Crimea are amongst the best-known specimens of these Asiatic tribes who have established themselves in the midst of a European people whose migration across the Urals is of a much earlier date. In many cases these people have obtained a certain degree of civilisation, and supply entire regiments of fine cavalry for the Russian army. In loyalty they will also compare admirably with the Russians proper, and are, perhaps, better trusted than the Finns, who cherish national aspirations towards Sweden, from which their country was severed, or the Germans of the Baltic provinces, who speak the tongue and share the sympathies of another and a more rival race, not in any way loved by the Slav. Of Tartar origin are also the Samoyedes who roam over the tûndra of the Arctic shores of the empire.* But as Mr. Mackenzie Wallace† points out, if we compare a Finnish village in any stage of Russification with a Tartar village of which the inhabitants are Mohammedans, we see a marked difference. The Tartars and the Russians never amalgamate. They have lived for centuries side by side, but they are as distant as if they had come together only yesterday. At one end of the village stands the Greek church; and at the other the little Metchet, or Mohammedan house of prayer. The commune has

* Pauly: "Déscription ethnographiqué des peuples de la Russie" (1862); Latham: "The Native Races of the Russian Empire" (1851).

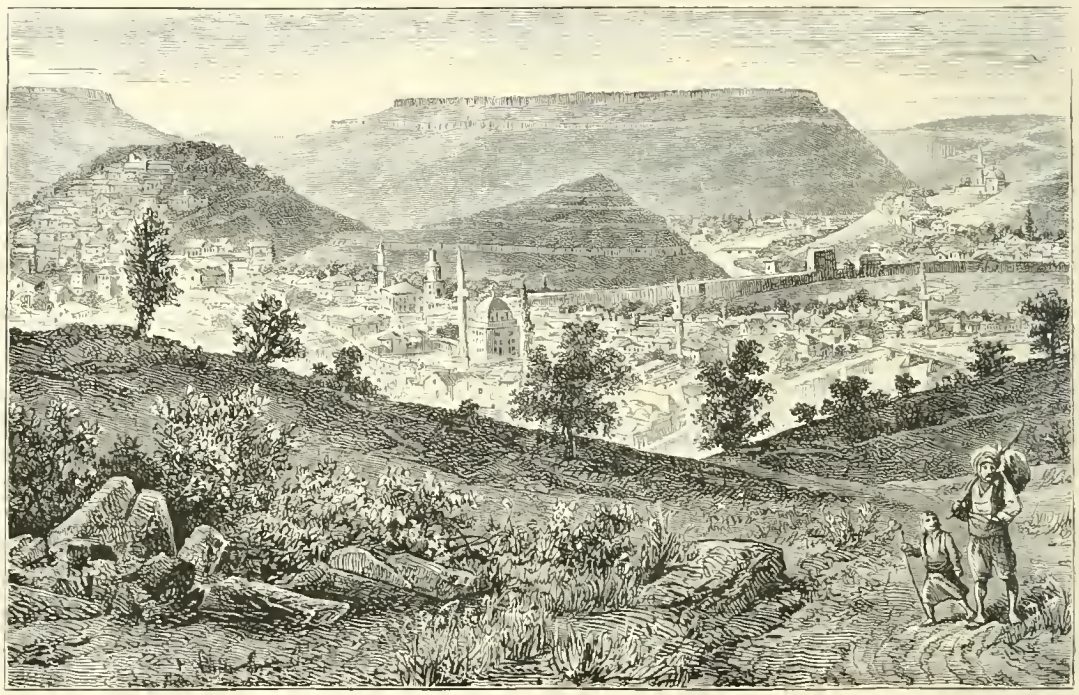
† "Russia" (1877), Vol. i. p. 238.

one village assembly and one village elder: "but socially it is composed of two distinct communities, each possessing its peculiar customs and peculiar mode of life." The Tartar may learn and even speak the Russian language, but he does not on that account become a Russian. On the other hand, there is no fanaticism on either side, and scarcely a trace of race hatred. They live together in perfect good fellowship, and discuss their common affairs without reference to religious matters. Sometimes a Tartar is elected village elder, sometimes a Russian. In one village broad toleration went a step further; the Christians requiring timber to repair their church, the Mohammedans helped to transport the wood for that purpose. The reason for this absence of fanaticism and proselytising zeal is due to the fact that the Russian looks upon religion as so closely allied to race as to be almost identical. The Russian is a Christian simply because he is a Slav: the Tartar is a Moslem because his face is brown, and he is not a Russian. They cannot help themselves; the only iniquity is when a man begins to change his faith—or, as the peasants say, "to invent one out of his own head." There is no such barrier between the Finns and the Russians. But, nevertheless, the former do not readily pull with their neighbours, though in other districts they have become quite blended with the population, and are Finns only in name.

The Jews are also numerous in the Russian Empire, especially in Poland, where their character is of the worst description; in addition to Armenians, Georgians, Circassians, Mingrelians, Lesghians, and allied tribes, whose proper country is the Caucasus and the country on either slope of that range. But the vast proportion of the Russian people are Slavs scarcely mingled with any other blood, despite the proverb about scraping them only to find the Tartar. The Great Russians of the centre and north of the country number about 32,000,000, the Ruthenes (Red or Little Russians), 12,000,000, and the White Russians of the west perhaps a fourth as many. Finally, there are the Poles of the now extinct and divided kingdom of Poland, who number 4,500,000, and the Lithuanians and Letts, who are Slavs mixed with Finnish and other race elements, and the people of Bessarabia, for the most part either Roumans or Bulgarians. Russia thus contains about 78,000,000 people, of whom four-fifths are Slavs of some kind.

The extent of the country may be imagined when it is mentioned that, notwithstanding the immense population of the Empire, the density is only thirty-two to a square mile, or ten times less than England and five times less than France. In reality it comprises some 2,261,000 square miles, forty times the area of England, and more than all the other States of Europe combined. From north to south, Russia in Europe is 1,700 miles long, and from west to east 1,400; or, as Mr. Johnston puts it, "six times the distance between London and Newcastle." Yet, as the entire Russian Empire embraces an area of 8,844,760 square miles and a population of nearly 86,000,000, that portion of it in Europe which contains the majority of the people is only a little over one-fourth of the country which owns the autocratic sway of Alexander III. The people have, therefore, ample room for expansion, though in reality the amount of country likely to repay cultivation under the present system is comparatively small. No part of Europe is more monotonous, and therefore none of the same extent will less repay

extended geographical examination, or provide more ample material for the study of mankind in his various phases.* This vast division of the continent might be described as one extensive plain, the only break in the monotony of which is the Valdai Hills, not much over a thousand feet in height, near the head of the Volga. Russia exhibits from north to south several well-marked zones. The Samoyede country on the mainland opposite Novai-Semlai is made up of the mossy tûndras of which we have so frequently spoken; but immediately south of this dreary tract comes the region of forests which extend to the Arctic Ocean around the southern and eastern borders of the White



VIEW OF TIRNOVA, THE OLD CAPITAL OF BULGARIA.

Sea. This country is cultivated in places, but as a rule it is too cold for most crops; while Finland is a rocky lake-dotted plateau, tilled in places where the area of soil is sufficient to permit the plough to run. The forest region occupies the greater part of the centre of Russia. As we proceed southward the trees get not quite so dense, the temperature milder, and the soil more fertile. Agriculture is more generally pursued, and the population, which in the north was very sparse, now becomes comparatively dense. In the "Northern Agricultural Zone" cities and towns become frequent, albeit the urban population of Russia is exceedingly small in proportion to the rural. Morasses become

* In "The Peoples of the World" now in preparation, a large portion of one volume will be devoted to the races of the Russian Empire, their social condition, migrations, and customs, while ample space will be reserved for a description of the Latin and German people, including the English, of whom accordingly only a sketch will be given in this work.

GATHERING ROSES IN ROUMELIA.

few and farms frequent, but agricultural operations do not begin to be very prominent until we reach the "Southern Agricultural Zone" (p. 253). Indeed, so little was tillage attended to in the north, that at the period of the emancipation of the serfs there were only six of these bondsmen in the whole of the vast province of Archangel and in the northern part of the province of Vologda, and these, Mr. Wallace mentions, belonged to nobles who did not possess estates. The southern half of the country consists of an immense expanse of rich arable land, "broken up by occasional patches of sand or forest. The imaginary undulating line separating these two regions starts from the western frontier about the fiftieth parallel of latitude, and runs in a north-easterly direction, till it enters the Urals in about 56° north latitude." This Southern Agricultural Zone supplies the great portion of the wheat which is exported from Russia. Here we find the black earth so celebrated for its fertility, and in the extreme south the great steppes or treeless upland plain which give such a character to that part of the Empire. Numerous German colonists have settled in this region; but though their villages bear such a marked contrast in tidiness and thrift to the haphazard, careless homesteads of the native Cossack and other Russian farmers, the latter do not learn much from them, but go on in the old way, evidently looking on the Germans as a superior sort of beings, to whom order and good agriculture comes naturally, but to imitate whom would be a reckless disregard of the provisions of nature. The steppe system of agriculture scarcely admits of ownership in land. A plot of ground is only cultivated for a few years in succession. It is then abandoned and allowed to lie fallow for from six to ten years, while the farmer breaks up and tills another portion of the communal territory. By-and-by he returns to his old plot; but the chances are he will not obtain exactly the same area of soil which he formerly cultivated, though he may obtain the same quantity. In brief, to use the words of the best English writer on Russia, each family "contents itself with a right of usufruct, whilst the right of property remains in the hands of the Commune." The "three-field system," which prevails in the more populous districts further north, is the result of increase of population and a corresponding augmentation in the value of the land. It is still somewhat archaic, according to our modern ideas, but far less primitive than that mentioned. According to this system, "the cultivators do not migrate periodically from one part of the communal territory to another, but till the same fields and are obliged to manure the plots which they occupy." In time, this brings about proprietary right in the land, for a family who has cultivated a certain number of fields will by-and-by regard them as their own, and object to remove to a farm held by improvident tillers. Still, however, the communal system, with its periodical allotment of land, keeps its ground in most parts of the country. Until land-surveying became common, the boundaries between the different communal lands were but vaguely known. After they had been once settled, the precise boundaries were recorded by all the boys of the contiguous "stanitsas" being collected and driven in a body to the intervening frontier. They then walked over the marches of the land, and at each landmark were soundly whipped in order that thereby the facts should be impressed on their minds *viâ* their skins. The chances were that boys so castigated would recollect in future years localities so dolorously associated in their memory. It is needless pointing out the antiquity of this system of recording parish boundaries. In many parts

of England, and even in London, it may be seen every year in operation. The vicar, churchwarden, and beadle, accompanied by a rabble of charity boys armed with wands, solemnly walk the "bounds," bumping boys at certain salient points, and generally acting as if there were no cadastral surveys, no maps, and writing an art as unknown as in the primitive times when these rude parochial ledgers were devised. In Russia, towns are comparatively few. The capital, St. Petersburg, was the creation of Peter the Great, and is a modern city. But Moscow, which was the old capital of the country when it comprised little more territory than the dukedom of Moscovy—the Empire being then divided up among a number of petty princes or even republics, which one by one have been absorbed by the Czar, before whom eight crowns are now carried as symbols of the eight kingdoms which he rules—is an ancient town (p. 256), separated from the western polish of St. Petersburg by 400 miles of swamp and forest, *straight* through which the Czar Nicholas ordered a railway to be driven. The Russians are, however, a people as yet far behind, and in some respects far ahead of the rest of Europe. Their cities, like themselves, at one point dazzle the visitor by their gaudy magnificence, and at another astonish him by their utterly primitive character. The greater portion of the nation are rude, simple peasants, utterly ignorant of western ways, and even yet only 17 per cent. of them are able to read. Their popas, or priests, are not much more learned and hardly more cultured, and some of the smaller proprietors bear no very striking dissimilarity to the Squire Westerns of the England of days gone by. Again, in the large cities, French polish is seen everywhere. No idea, however advanced, but is eagerly seized, discussed, and often adopted. The palaces are loaded with luxury, the people are ashamed to speak in their mother-tongue as too rude and vulgar, and generally are so very civilised that it is only when the varnish is rubbed off that the harsh contrast between the surface and the interior is seen. The Russians, in brief, are in a stage of transition. To those of them whose ignorance is just unfolding, all that is new is true. They grasp with avidity the wildest theoretical ideas of religion, "liberty," and government, without having the requisite knowledge, ballast, or experience to supply the modifying influence which all such crudely captivating doctrines demand. Hence, the birth and spread of Nihilism among all classes of the townsmen, though hitherto it has scarcely affected the great mass of the peasants living in the country far away from the corrupting influence of cities. It is the same with a Russian town. It is a diamond set in brass. Outside it looks picturesque enough, and the traveller who skims past in a railway train regrets that he cannot spare time to visit the place where spires and church roofs appear over the dreary expanse of black forest through which he is passing. Inside, however, the prospect is not usually so charming. The towns are usually so very rustic as to be only "villages in disguise." The streets are straight and wide—as might be expected in a country where land is still cheap—but these are in most cases squalid, without foot pavements, or, if paved in the middle, with ruts so wide that any advantage which might have been derived from the arrangement is almost lost. The houses are usually built of wood or stone one storey high, separated from each other by wide court-yards, and in many cases with their fronts turned from the street. "The general

impression produced is, that the majority of the burghers have come from the country, and have brought their country houses with them." There are shops, but the windows do not contain much, and are not tastefully arranged to attract a possible buyer's eye. If the visitor wishes to make purchases, he must visit the Bazaar where the principal dealers congregate. But even here there is little din or bustle, and it is evident, from the few customers, that the shopkeeper does not believe in "the nimble ninepence," but in the large profits which he makes out of the few people who have money to spend. There is an air of languor prevailing over everything. Cows or horses graze in the main square—if there is a square—and the inhabitants who go abroad at night must arm themselves with lanterns, since the streets are only lighted with a few oil lamps, which serve little more than to confuse the eye. Mr. Wallace mentions that few of the provincial towns are lighted with gas, and when it was proposed to displace the oil lamps, which up to that date had not illumined the streets of Moscow, one of the town councillors opposed the innovation as needless and revolutionary. With the exception of Odessa and St. Petersburg, Russian towns look very rustic, or have the appearance of "those retired suburbs of a large city which are still free from the jurisdiction of the municipal authorities."

On reading the official records of Russia, one might imagine that the statement regarding the scarcity of towns in the Empire was an error, since numbers of them are scheduled. In reality, however, a town is, officially, any small collection of houses containing certain organs of administration, even though it may be, in popular language, the merest village. Excluding, therefore, all places which contain less than ten thousand inhabitants, there are in Russia proper—excluding Finland, the Baltic Provinces, Lithuania, Poland, and the Caucasus, which, though politically part of Russia, are socially not of it—only 127 towns in the whole of the Empire in Europe, and of these only eleven (St. Petersburg, 668,000; Moscow, 602,000; Odessa, 121,000; Kishinef, 104,000; Saratof, 93,000; Kazan, 79,000; Kief, 71,000; Nikolaief, 68,000; Kharkof, 60,000; Tula, 58,000; and Berditchef, 52,000) have more than 50,000 inhabitants.* Many causes have conduced to this state of matters, some of which Mr. Wallace has discussed with his usual caution and acuteness. The enormous size of Russia to its population, large though this is, strikes every one; yet no country in the world is expanding at the rate of the Empire of the Czar. In little more than two centuries the little district around the sources of the Dnieper has absorbed half of Europe, and overflowed the Ourals and Caucasus, until it has reached the head waters of the Oxus and touched the spurs of the Himalayas. Conquest, and the greed of power, has done much to cause this expansion. The necessity of having a frontier "scientific" enough to prevent the incursion of barbarous enemies has been another factor in the problem of Russian advance. But the agricultural pursuits of the vast majority of the people have been the main, though not, at first sight, the most prominent cause of the Empire continuing to spread. It is this which has brought the nation into contact with the barbarians on their borders, and has thus necessitated military occupation to protect the pioneers, or to punish the offenders. Within the bounds of old European Russia there is land enough to support

* Wallace: "Russia," Vol. I., p. 254; *Almanach de Gotha*, 1881, p. 921.

the entire population of the Empire for ages yet to come. But Muscovite agriculture is of the most primitive kind. The soil soon gets exhausted, or decreases in fertility, and the agriculturist, finding land plentiful, has no temptation to linger on the same spot pampering the lean earth with manures and other incentives to crop-bearing. Hence it also follows that a people placed in the middle of a country so well fitted to support them would not readily adopt the life of a trader or an artizan, which would

A RUSSIAN VILLAGE IN THE SOUTHERN AGRICULTURAL ZONE.

necessitate their removal to towns. Serfage also hindered the collection of large bodies of people on one spot. The nobles were in the habit of passing the greater part of the year on their estates, and hence found it convenient to train up their dependants to all kinds of handicrafts, which would enable them to supply their lords' needs. To this, as well as to the law binding the peasant to the soil on which he was born, is to be ascribed the curious village industries which may be found all over Russia. However, in time, a certain population would have gravitated to towns, and would have hived off from those already in existence to found and populate new ones. But the Russian princes, after obtaining their freedom from the yoke which for two centuries the

Tartars had imposed on them, treated the people after the most autocratic manner. The townsmen they freed from the duties of serfs, and established as a class by themselves. But in return they exacted such heavy dues from them in money and kind, that there began to be an exodus so marked that laws were passed to fix the urban population to the cities, just as the rural population were fixed to the country. Under Peter the Great and his successors, these galling restrictions were either relaxed or abolished. Still this had not a great deal of effect in stimulating the growth of cities, for it requires something better than an Imperial ukase before a people, ignorant and down-trodden for centuries, can at once make themselves masters of the art of self-government, pursued under a system like that of Russia. Accordingly, the official statistics of 1875 show that the population of the Empire is divided as follows:—

Hereditary nobles	652,887
Personal nobles	374,367
Clerical classes	695,905
Town classes	7,196,005
Rural classes	63,840,291
Military classes	4,767,703
Foreigners	153,135
	77,680,293

In reality, however, some of these divisions are mere official fictions, for in no country in the world are class distinctions less sharply cut than in Russia, the autocratic reforms of that most democratic of sovereigns, Peter the Great, making service to the State the only basis for rank. Hence, though the titles of nobility, from prince to baron, are sufficiently numerous, no man would dream of presuming on his title alone; and, moreover, it may be added, that in spite of the general belief to the contrary, and some very exceptional cases in support of the belief, the majority of the Russian aristocracy are poor. The greater number of the people are Christians of the Russo-Greek Church. The Roman Catholics and Jews are chiefly found in Poland, the Protestants in the Baltic Provinces, the Mohammedans in and about the Caucasus, Lamaism or Buddhism and Shamanism among the tribes on the Asiatic frontier and along the shores of the Polar Sea, and Armenians in the far south. There is no more religious people in Europe than the Russians—so far as outward forms are concerned. The Russian section of the Greek Church does not recognise the Patriarch of Constantinople as its head, the Emperor filling that office, and executing the decrees of the Synod. For a member of the orthodox church to renounce his faith is an offence so serious that the punishment decreed is detention for life in a convent. On the other hand, anything like religious intolerance is strange to the Russian nature, so long as the particular faith which may be flourishing alongside his own is not a dissent from the Greek Church. Thus we have already seen that Moslems and Christians live together in the same village on terms of the most perfect amity, and in some semi-Asiatic, semi-European towns like Astrakhan, such is the diversity of religionists within their bounds that were anything like Pharasaism general in the Russian character, civil war must be the

normal condition of affairs. For example—as in the town mentioned—there will be several orthodox churches alongside those devoted to the Roman Catholic, Protestant, and Armenian creeds, Mohammedan mosques, and even Buddhist temples and Jewish synagogues.

Since the abolition of serfdom, education has made rapid advances throughout the country. Universities and schools of every kind have been scattered widely throughout the Empire, and in the year 1879, £2,318,586 were set down in the Budget for public education. The Grand Duchy of Finland and the Baltic Provinces are the best taught portion of the Empire. In these Protestant provinces education is nearly universal, but in Russia proper there is still much to be done before the rural districts can be made to appreciate even the elementary facts of knowledge. For long, the Russian language was merely the dialect of a certain part of the country, and was not committed to writing until the time of Peter the Great. It has now a considerable literature. Polish is also another Slav dialect, excelling even the Russian in euphony, precision, and richness. The Finnish tongue, which is of Tartar origin, has also some considerable literary claims, and of late years there have been some patriotic efforts made to increase the cultivation of it, not altogether to the satisfaction of the Russian officials, who, not unreasonably, doubt the loyalty of the Finns' philological ardour. Art is cultivated to some extent. But the Russians, though admirable imitators, do not excel as original composers. Science is a branch of knowledge on which large sums are expended by the Government and by private individuals. The Russian expeditions into Central Asia have been on a scale compared with which the rest of Europe has nothing to show, and while their own territories afford the most ample scope for exploration, Russian *savants* have travelled into the most distant parts of the world, and increased the credit of their countrymen as lovers of abstract learning.

Russia, as we have seen, is essentially an agricultural country. Its northern harbours being frozen up for nearly half the year, seaborne commerce to a great extent is denied it, and with the exception of the manufactories which find a home near the great cities, industries, except in the staples of the country, are few. Flax is grown, and manufactured into rough linen and sail cloth, while hemp is exported and turned into cordage on a large scale. Silk and cotton factories also give employment to some of the spare capital of the St. Petersburg and Moscow merchants, while timber and the products of the forest are exported on a large scale. Tallow and hides also figure extensively in the Russian exports, and in the swine, which root over so much of the wild country, the bristle and brush trade find the source of their raw material. Trapping, fishing, and mining—the latter especially in the Oural region—also afford occupation to many thousands of the people, free and bond, and in the ironworks and cannon foundries of Perm, Poland, and the shores of Lake Onega an immense quantity of the native iron is consumed. Gold-mining is also pursued in the Ourals and Siberia, and is a source of incredible wealth to the Imperial Family and to private individuals. The chief drawback of Russia as a mining region is the absence of coal. This valuable mineral is found in various places, but the yield is small, and unfortunately its localities do not always coincide with those of the deposits of metal. Hence, timber must be employed for smelting purposes.

In time, the supply of this fuel must fail, and in any case, as the attractions of agriculture are too great to induce any large number of people to take to the less independent and more skilful arts of the fabricator, manufactories and other industrial establishments will long remain in an exotic condition in the great Northern Empire. Nor is it likely that the Government will deeply regret this. The Russian towns are refractory,

KRUSNAYA PLACE, MOSCOW.

and it is easier to deal with small scattered than with large united bodies of discontented revolutionists.

The foreign trade of Russia is carried on inland with Asia, and through its system of railways with the interior of the European continent. Through the Baltic and White Sea ports, and those of the Black Sea in the south, there is also an export and import trade going on. In round figures, about £65,000,000 worth of goods, chiefly cotton, tea, ironware, and machinery are imported, and about £68,000,000 worth of Russian products, consisting mainly of grain, flax, and tallow are sent abroad. Of the European countries, Great Britain and Germany monopolise the major part of the Russian trade.

SPANISH COASTGUARDSMEN.

In summer, the great navigable rivers afford easy transit for goods, and in winter the snow-covered surface of the country enables the sledger to pass rapidly from one city to another. At the great fairs—like that of Nijni-Novgorod—vast quantities of goods are exchanged by the merchants who rendezvous from every part of Europe and Asia, the sight being one of those picturesque features of Russia which never cease to have an interest for the curious tourists who in yearly increasing numbers congregate at these temporary exchanges of the Europo-Asiatic traders.

Of the Government of Russia it is almost needless saying more than that it is an Empire, the head of which is the Czar—or Tsar, as purists write the word—who exercises absolute sway over the millions who own him as their temporal and spiritual head. In directing the affairs of this vast Empire the Czar is assisted by four great councils, who superintend the various departments, but whose power emanates solely from the head of the State, and can be exercised solely through him. The Government of Poland is now merged in that of Russia, but Finland enjoys a separate and more liberal organisation, under a Governor and a Senate partly nominated and partly elected by the people at large. Since the days of Nicholas, when everything in the shape of reform stagnated, the Empire has greatly advanced. Law-courts have been established in all parts of the Empire, and if the officials are notoriously corrupt and lax, this is mainly owing to the people themselves being wanting in foresight, firmness, energy, or that appreciation of the gifts vouchsafed them, which would speedily force the inefficient officials into a better train of work. Altogether, European Russia is divided into sixty governments or vice-royalties, each of which is a kind of autonomy administered by an elaborate machinery of self-government, and enjoying, in the case of the nobles and the peasants, an amount of freedom and independence strangely in contrast with the autocratic system under which the Empire at large is ruled. The revenue of Russia it is always difficult to get at. For 1880 it was estimated at £128,854,000, while the expenditure rather exceeded the income. In addition to a great imperial floating debt, it is believed that Russia owes to foreign creditors something like £116,980,000; altogether, if the total debt of the country be put down at £416,500,000, it will not be exaggerated. Russia is an immense military power. At present, its army—regular and irregular—amounts to 973,135 men in time of peace, and 2,618,312 in time of war. The navy was composed, in 1880, of 389 vessels of every description. This force, however, shows better on paper than in reality, though, since the death of Alexander II., there have been immediate efforts made to render it more efficient. The future of Russia is not our part to attempt to forecast. It is enough to say that few countries in Europe have much brighter prospects. The towns, even were they all discontented and Nihilistic, are few, while the vast array of peasants—63,000,000 in number—are thoroughly loyal, and, being extremely ignorant, are not likely for long to be anything else. These people make up the great mass of the army, and any attempt at revolution would be instantly crushed by their overwhelming numbers. Moreover, the theories of the Russian revolutionaries are too insane to appeal to any very large body of the people, and even if they understood their aimless efforts, would be instantly repulsed by peasants whose interests are opposed to the destruction of private rights in property. In time.

however, as education advances, Russia will change with it. The country's advancement during recent years has been great, but would have been greater still had the Nihilists and other conspirators been content to hasten slowly. When the people become fitted for the lordship of themselves "that heritage of woe," the interest of self-preservation, apart from any higher motives, will inevitably dictate to the Czar, if not to his immediate surrounding, the necessity of going with the tide, instead of attempting to stem it in vain. A docile race, living in a land abounding in resources, with tillable soil far more than sufficient for all comers for ages yet to dawn, the Russians form the raw material of a nation great at present, greater yet to be, and with a future not to be commiserated, and even to be envied.

CHAPTER XIII.

Europe: The Latin States.

At what date relatively to the other European septs of the Aryans the people now known as Latin, Græco-Latin, or Romanic entered the Continent from Asia cannot be even guessed. By some ethnologists they are believed to have come in several sections. The first might have been the progenitors of the Albanians, and the Pelasgi; the second, the various clans who settled in Italy; and the third, the Greek tribes who seem to have come through Asia Minor and the Archipelago. No family of the European stock has exercised a greater influence on the world than the Latin people. Whether they found the country already possessed by aborigines and amalgamated with them, or are of pure descent, their personality has been marked on the world's history, language, destiny, and modes of thought. In Italy, and less so in Greece, the Græco-Latins exist in some purity, but in France, Spain, Portugal, and Roumania, and more or less in other countries, the Latin tongue and features are predominant, though originally these countries were overlaid by the widespread Celtic understratum. In appearance the Latins are markedly distinguished from the Slavs or Teutons. Instead of red or fair hair, and a blonde complexion, they are swarthy in the skin and black haired, with minds singularly acute rather than capable of great efforts and laborious logical operations, and persons handsomely formed rather than framed on a colossal model. Dr. Latham * explains the close connection of the Latin and Greek tongues—long admitted to constitute branches of the same stock—by believing the Hellenes or Greeks to be of Italian origin, and that Greece prior to their arrival was peopled by the Albanians or Skipetars. Hence the chances are that the old Hellenes were tinged with Albanian, Illyrian, or Epirot blood on one side, and Italian on the other, since emigrants do not usually encumber themselves with the women of

* "Ethnology of Europe," p. 97.

their country, but marry among the daughters of the land of their adoption. Modern Greece it requires some courage to assert not to be ancient Greece much more than in name. On a map of the country we find comparatively few of the old classical names, and in spite of the region being so long subject to the Turks, not a great number which can be attributed to that people. In reality, many of the names—as Leake showed—are Slavonian, though, it is fair to add, the ancient Greek ones have never been forgotten by the people. From the year 582 A.D. up to within a short period of the Turkish invasion, Greece was being overrun by various Slavonic tribes. Indeed, in the time of Constantine Porphyrogeneta, the Hellenic population was the exception instead of the rule. "In Macedonia," writes the Imperial author, with fine sweeping generalisation, "the Scythians dwell, instead of the Macedonians. The whole country is Slavonised." In addition, there is among the Modern Greeks the blood of Albanians, Italians, Turks, Bulgarians, Wallachians, Arabs, French, and Catalonians. On the other hand, while it is nourishing a sentimental blunder to imagine that the race of Achilles is exactly that of M. Commoundouros, any more than that George of Denmark is a descendant of Alexander of Macedon, it would be an equal mis-statement to assert that the modern Greeks have not a close blood connection with the heroic race of the ancient Hellenes. In character the modern Hellenes are close connections of their classic namesakes, and even those least favourable to the nation, as a whole, agree in considering that Fallmerayer carried his theory of the Slavonic character of the people to an undue extent.* In the Ionian Islands and Bœotia the foreign admixtures are, perhaps, most marked; in the land of the Laconians the Hellenic blood is, perhaps, the purest. The modern Italians are, of course, a very mixed race. In the north Dr. Latham considers them to be Ligurian, Etruscan, and Celtic—Celtic to some extent in the Umbrian, Sabine, and Samnite countries—and Greek in the south. Even in the time of the Romans the country must have been more Italian in language than in blood. Hence it is that the most Italian part of the peninsula consists of the portions least accessible. When the Empire began to fall to pieces there were inroads of Barbarian hordes—German, Turk (Huns, &c.), and Bulgarian; and since that date, Spaniards, French, Austrians, and Albanians have contributed to the admixture of the Italian stock. What the Romans were in the latter days of the Empire it is only possible to conjecture from a knowledge of the heterogeneous composition of their armies and of the equally heterogeneous mass of people who congregated in the capital of the world. From the time of the Republic, Ligurians planted themselves in the peninsula, and in the era of the Lombards there was a Bulgarian colony in the same part of the country, viz., in Samnium. As the conquests of the Romans extended, their own people were far too few to supply soldiers for the army. Hence, in time, a Roman legionary might be "a Briton, a Gaul, a German, a Slavonian, an African." Sicily and the extreme south of Italy were originally Hellenic, but, in time, numbers of Arabs, French, Catalonians, and Albanians settled there, and the traces of their descendants may easily be detected at the present day. Malta is, for example, an Italian

* Müller: "Allgemeine Ethnographie" (1873); About: "La Grece Contemporaine" (1854); Fallmerayer: "Geschichte der Halbinsel Morea" (1847); Sergeant: "New Greece" (1878).

island, governed by the English, but inhabited by a people who, on an Italian stock, have grafted an Arab dialect. The other Latin countries were made so by means of Roman conquest and colonisation, but Britain and Germany imbibed few Roman elements, and have almost entirely eliminated or overlaid them, by subsequent ethnic elements received from other countries.* The Latin countries—speaking of a country simply in its political significance — are France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the

MODERN GREEK PEASANTS.

newly-founded kingdom of Roumania, which is peopled by the descendants of colonists of Italy, intermarried with the natives of Dacia, and to some extent with the Gipsies, who swarm throughout the country. Altogether, there may be about 96,400,000 Græco-Latins, viz., 37,000,000 French and Walloons, 27,800,000 Italians, 21,000,000 Spaniards and Portuguese, 8,000,000 Roumanians, less than 3,000,000 Greeks and Hellenised people, and about 60,000 Rhætians or Ladinians. It will thus be seen that there are Latin people belonging to nations that politically and ethnologically are Germans. This is the fate of war and the tendency of self-interest; for no more mischievous theory was

* Latham: "Nationalities of Europe," Vol. II., pp. 14, 242.

ever broached than that blood and tongue keep people together, or that such kinsmen ought to be made or induced to cleave to those of the same origin. Brothers are notoriously not always the most kindly-disposed to each other. Self-interest is the main bond between nations, and language is only a convenient element which self-interest makes it convenient to cultivate.

France.

Fully three and a half times larger than England, France is singularly well situated for commerce. As Russia occupies the broadest part of the European Continent, so France stretches across its narrowest span, and, lying between the Mediterranean and Atlantic, with good harbours in both seas, the surplus products from its width of 600 miles, and 204,000 square miles of area, are drawn off to the Gulf of Lyons on one side, and to the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel on the other. From Italy it is separated by the Jura Alps, from Spain by the rugged Pyrenees. The boundary of the country on the side of Belgium and Germany is a mere line on the map, guarded by a chain of fortresses round which international jealousies are likely to circle for ages yet to come. Corsica, a rugged forest-covered mountainous island of the Mediterranean, is also an integral part of France, so far as its government is concerned, though the people are more Italian than French, and cherish strong autonomous prejudices, which a century of Gallic rule has not yet entirely effaced. The great watershed of France is situated close to the eastern border of the country. Here, separated by well-marked elevations which follow their courses and decline towards the Atlantic, run the Garonne, Loire, and Seine, in the basin of which three rivers are comprised about nine-tenths of France. Between the Cevennes, which are prolonged northward by the Côte-d'or, the Langres Plateau and Vosges, and the Alps, flows the Rhone, which empties into the Mediterranean. The chief rivers are navigable for long distances, and are united with each other by lateral canals, which aid in forming that network of waterways which intersect the fruitful, thickly-populated, and well-cultivated country. France is not an elevated country outside the ranges mentioned, yet Mont Blanc, the loftiest peak in Europe, rises just within its borders; and in Puy de Sancy, the highest of the Auvergne volcanic hills in the central part of the country, the elevation of 6,225 feet is attained. The lowlands of France are not, however, flats, as in the more northerly countries, but rolling, undulating districts lying for the most part along the Atlantic border, and in the Valley of the Rhone opening into the Mediterranean. About one-eighth of the surface is still wooded, in spite of the enormous destruction of timber which has been going on during the last few centuries, the forests of Orleans and Fontainebleau being specimens of what at one time prevailed over much of the country controlled by the despotic feudal proprietors who took their pleasure in the widespread haunts of the wolf, the boar, and the deer. But with the exception of the Landes, the Vosges, and the Pyrenees, where cultivation is only possible in favourable localities, there are few parts of France incapable of supplying food for man and beast. The climate is one of the finest in Europe—mild, equable, and healthy—in spite of the hot winds from Africa, which sometimes impinge on the southern districts,

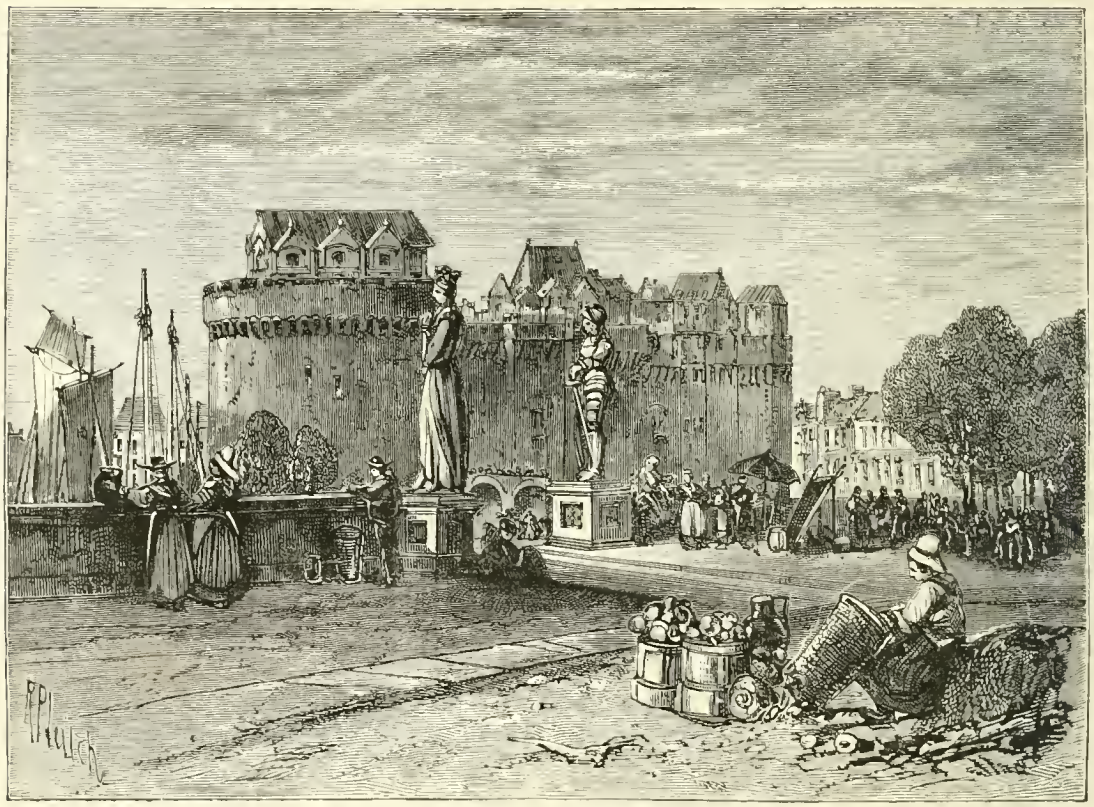
and the chilly "mistral" which sweeps down from the Alps in the north. The vine is one of the plants regularly grown in all the departments except the north-western, the regions of Champagne, Burgundy, and the country in the vicinity of Bordeaux being the best fitted for the protection of the grapes from which the wines known under these names are made. The olive flourishes in the valley of the Rhone, the maize is also a profitable crop, and in the maritime country opposite England wheat and other cereals, along with all kinds of temperate fruits, are grown in great abundance and perfection, while the *petite culture* of the peasants results in the exportation of prodigious quantities of fowls, eggs, butter, and vegetables to England, which constitutes their most profitable market. The extreme subdivision of farms acts prejudicially on pastoral pursuits. In the number and quality of the sheep, cattle, and horses France is far inferior to Germany and England, though, again, the general comfort, thrift, and prosperity of the people are superior to what obtains in the latter country, and even in the former, which the poverty of the soil, and the oppressive military and other laws, handicap. Of the thirty-seven millions of people in France, the Celts form the main part of the population in Brittany, and partially in the Basque country of the western Pyrenees. Alsace and Lorraine, before these provinces were annexed to Germany, were chiefly inhabited by by Teutons, and immediately within the French border a considerably German element is still found. In the south and south-east, especially in Savoy, now severed from Italy, the people are largely intermixed with Italians, and in appearance and language partake of the characteristics of that race. They are small, dark, and "lively," and speak the famous Langue d'oc, or Provencal, which is really French, with the original Romance in a more unbroken condition than it is found in the rest of the country. Just as naturally on the Belgium frontier, towards the northern, the Walloon or Fleming admixture appears with the Langue d'oil, another Romance dialect, spoken by the people of that region. Here also the inhabitants approach more to the Teutonic type. Tall, blue-eyed, fair-haired men are commonly seen, and gravity replaces the gaiety and impulsiveness, which in the pleasure-loving south so often takes the form of frivolity, and has given a brave, generous race that reputation for inconstancy and vanity which they bear among their duller, more severe, and often prejudiced neighbours. Yet, though education is not general, owing to a variety of causes, the chief of which is that formerly it was almost solely under the control of the clergy, and not under a Government department whose interest it was to see that the law was carried out in its spirit and letter, apart from any ecclesiastical motives impelling a contrary course, intelligence is a widespread characteristic of the French. The more uncultured classes of the community may be ignorant and superstitious, yet extreme bigotry is not found except among the women and the legitimist aristocracy, whose moral and political mentors are the Jesuits, now expelled from the country. In the Protestant districts, education is not more advanced than in the more extensive Roman Catholic ones. In the west and south-west, the people are extremely deficient in knowledge, while on the German frontier there is a considerable taste for education. Nevertheless, France, if not the cynosure of surrounding nations, as her Chauvinist children would claim, is, and for more than two centuries has been, a model on which the

culture of the other European countries has been moulded. In Paris centres the most polished society of the world. From Paris are sent forth the books, the bonnets, the pictures, and possibly even the vices which are so largely aped by the rest of the civilised world. It is the city of pleasure. But contrary to the general impression, the morals of Paris, if not high, are not superlatively low; for though these are depraved enough, they are infinitely superior in many respects to those of Vienna, Naples, Bucharest, and even Berlin, which is more circumspect and prudish.

Earnestness is, however, not the most prominent French virtue. But industry is, and when combined with exquisite taste, has, in a region so admirably situated as is this fair land for commerce and manufactures, done much to give France the enviable position which for the last century she has maintained among the European nations, notwithstanding revolutions, war, and anarchy.

The country has a coast line of 1,500 miles, frequently bold, irregular, and opposite England deeply indented. From the Seine southward the shore is lower, until the Cotentin headland is reached, when the former rugged features again present themselves. On both sides of the promontory of Brittany the shores are precipitous, until we come to L'Orient, when the mud flats are varied with occasional rocky capes. From the Loire to the Gironde the coast is low and marshy, and thence to the Pyrenees is bordered by the "Landes," or sand dunes covered by stunted pines, and backed by heathy tracks, sandy and poor, and except where varied by fields and marshes, affording only a scanty pasturage for a few scrubby sheep. The Mediterranean shore is bordered by lagoons, separated from the sea by flat peninsulas, until towards the Italian borders the coast assumes features less wearisomely monotonous. But this very variety of shore, like the variety of soils inland, has made France a land of corn and wine, sailors and merchants, farmers and vine dressers. The vine is indeed the staple agricultural product of France. But in Lyons, St. Etienne, Nimes, and Tours, the silk-weaving centre, and in Lille, Roubaix, Tourcoing, Cambrai—from which city our word "cambric" is derived—Valenciennes, St. Quentin, Rouen, Amiens, Nancy, Rheims, and other towns and cities in the north, there are large manufactories of woollen, linen, and cotton goods. Paris produces a little of everything that the rest of France does, but more particularly fine-art work, and at Sevres are, as every drawing-room in Christendom and most palaces in Pagandom can bear witness, the famous porcelain manufactories which give their name to the handiwork there produced. Limoges is also a city of potters, while glass-work is extensively exported from several of the northern departments, particularly from Paris itself. Though the south is more given over to silk, wine, and brandy, as well as to oil and the other luscious products of its climate, yet at Le Mans, Angers, and Rennes, further to the north, there are woollen and cotton manufactories giving employment to a great number of people. Altogether, the average value of the manufactures may be about £100,000,000. Still France ranks far below England as a manufacturing country. The proportion of the workers of this description to those engaged in agriculture is as 1 to 5, nearly the reverse of the ratio which obtains in England; but while the English agriculturist is far ahead of the Gallic peasant in the science of his art (pp. 221, 265), the French artizan as infinitely excels the English "hand" in taste and originality of design. The imports of France

for home consumption are valued at over £178,438,000, and its exports of home produce at £134,792,000 in round figures; but though its foreign trade is, next to that of Great Britain, the greatest in Europe, its mines are by no means the least important of its sources of wealth. From the basins of the Loire, Rhone, Creuzot, and Valenciennes, which extends to Belgium and is known as the coal-field of that kingdom, more than nineteen millions of tons of fuel are annually mined, though the supply is so far unequal to the demand that quantities are imported from the neighbouring countries. The same may be said



VIEW IN NANTES, ON THE LOIRE, FRANCE.

in regard to iron, which, though found in different places, has to be imported to supply the needs of the founders, the main difficulty being that the ore is not deposited in that close proximity to the coal which allows of it being profitably smelted. Still, as the great iron-works of Creuzot and St. Etienne prove, France can manufacture hardware of a fine quality, and, in the case of chassepôts and other lethal weapons, of a peculiarly effective character. The country is intersected by 15,000 miles of railway, which centre in the principal seaports, such as Marseilles, on the Mediterranean, Bordeaux, Nantes, and St. Nazaire, on the Bay of Biscay; and Havre, Calais, and Dunkirk, on the English Channel. It is needless to speak of the army and navy of France—for her soldiers, if not her sailors also, have ever been at once her glory and her misery—

military destination being one of the most fatal of the will-o'-the-wisps which have lured France to temporary ruin. The force at the disposal of the country was, at the date of the latest statistics, 502,764 men, capable of being raised in the last extremity to the number of 3,753,164 men, while the fleet of 258 ships was manned by 1,783 officers

A FARMYARD IN BRITTANY, FRANCE.

and 46,500 men and boys. The total public debt of France is £940,000,000, while its revenue of £109,988,422, or more than a quarter of a million greater than that of this country, was in 1880 largely exceeded, mainly owing to the efforts made to put the country into a "a proper state of defence." France is at present a republic, divided into eighty-seven departments, apportionments of the country simply for purposes of government, and of no historical interest compared with the provinces into which it was divided prior

to the revolution, in so far that these provinces represented the kingdoms, duchies, and other sovereignties out of which the country had been gradually built up. Most of the eighty-seven departments are named from the principal rivers which flow through them, and are often called prefectures, from the prefect, or chief official personage, who presides over each, and who resides in the *chef lieu*, or capital town, which is, however, not necessarily the largest. In addition to France proper, the country has numbers of dependencies or colonies, and "protected countries." Some of these colonies, like Algeria, are regarded as a sort of immediate annexes of the mother country, and are governed by constitutions not widely different. Others send representatives to the French Legislature, while a third and inferior class are ruled directly as dependencies, much in the same way as our Crown colonies, though none of them have Parliaments or responsible Governments. These colonies we need not recapitulate, as we have already visited, and noticed in more or less detail, the most important of them. France has within her the elements of prosperity such as have been vouchsafed to scarcely any other European country. Her people, with all their faults, are a fine race, industrious, amiable, intelligent, and patriotic. Her climate is the best, take it all in all, on the Continent, and her soil, in fertility and variety, is surpassed by no other region. Ravaged by invaders, shaken by civil wars, oppressed by enormous fines imposed on her by conquerors, drained of her best men to resist armed coalitions, and to gratify the ambition of military adventurers, France has suffered and survived misfortunes which would have utterly overwhelmed for ages any country less abounding in resources, or peopled by a race not so elastic as the so-called volatile French. In the Franco-German war an indemnity was exacted from her by the victorious Germans so enormous in amount that it was believed that the country would be so crushed under the load as to be harmless for an incalculable period. But the five milliards of francs (£250,000,000) were paid, as they could have been paid ten times over, if necessary, in addition to another £121,500,000 incurred on the country's own behalf. And yet to-day France is more prosperous than ever she was, and on the whole not feeling the load laid on her half so much as the conquerors do their own burdens, even with the five milliards to lighten the grievous weight of a victorious war.*

Between Italy and France lies the rocky promontory of *Monaco*, a petty principality ruled for 800 years by the Grimaldis. It contains 7,000 inhabitants, who pay no taxes, the prince's revenue being derived from the proprietor of the gambling establishment, and the visitors who are attracted by this den, or by the fine climate.

Spain and Portugal.

The Iberian Peninsula, as the 228,000 square miles occupied by these two Latin kingdoms is called, comprises a varied territory four times as large as England, and more extensive

* Kleine: "Les richesses de la France" (1872); Colle: "La France et ses Colonies" (1878); Langel: "La France politique et sociale" (1878); Lavergne: "Economie rurale de la France" (1878); Reclus: "La France" (1877); Duval: "L'Algerie et les Colonies françaises" (1877), and numerous official publications and annuals, in addition to the works already quoted.

than France. Politically, it is occupied by Spain, Portugal, and the British rock fortress of Gibraltar; physically, it is one of the most mountainous sections of Europe. We speak, and speak correctly, of the "sunny fields of Spain." But if by this phrase we intend to convey the idea that Spain is either field-like or undulating we put in currency a most erroneous idea. The peninsula is traversed in almost every direction, but more especially from east to west, by mountain ranges, or "sierras," that known as the Sierra Nevada culminating in Mulahacem, 11,680 feet in height, and nourishing glaciers in its snowy valleys. Between the two main ranges, and occupying half the area of the peninsula, is an upland—elevated, bare, and monotonous at all seasons, in summer parched by drought and sun, and in winter swept by fierce chilly blasts. This plateau is again divided into two, that of Old Castile and Leon, of which Valladolid is the chief city, and that of New Castile and Estremadura, of which Madrid, the capital of Spain, is the principal point of interest. Indeed, with the exception of the lower part of the valley of the Ebro, in the north-east of the plain of Seville in the basin of the Guadalquiver in the south-west, there are really no level sections of any extent in the country. It also follows that the rivers of the peninsula are for the most part broken up by rapids, subject to floods in winter and droughts in summer, and hence of little value to the seaman and not much to the farmer.

The climate and scenery of the country are also as varied as the surface. The north-west mountain region is very rainy, and during part of the year cold and foggy. But in this section of the country the freshest vegetation is found. The meadow lands are green, and the undulating valleys are covered with corn-fields, vineyards, orchards, and woods, through which run streams swarming with fish. The plains of Andalusia and the basin of the Douro contain some of the finest wheat soil in Spain, and yield rich crops which only the difficulty of transport fail to make an ample source of profit to the inhabitants. The absence of trees on the middle of the plateau zone, higher up, give it a bareness which to those accustomed to the better wooded country nearer the coast is dismally monotonous. This region is not naturally deficient in timber. But owing to the absence of other fuel, the inhabitants have cleared it off, and it is affirmed, though the statement seems ridiculous, have such an actual prejudice against trees that they destroy them when young. At all events, in the plateaux one sees little timber until a height is reached, where the trees, being too difficult to get at, have been allowed to grow in comparative peace. However, in the Asturias and Biscay, there are fine oak woods, and in Catalonia, the Serrania of Cuenca, and the Guadarrama, there are many good forests of pine, kermes oak, cork, olive, sumach, carob, mulberry, and nut trees. The climate of the plateaux region is also not the most agreeable in Spain. The winters are cold, and ice usually forms about Madrid, but in the summer, the long drought parches everything, and the bare landscape is half concealed by a haze which overhangs the surface. In the most southern zone of Spain, at a low elevation, the climate and productions are almost tropical, indeed, though the temperature is for most of the year extremely agreeable, too tropical for those not accustomed to it when the Solano blows. This hot African wind is, even to the natives, excessively enervating. During its continuance all exertion must perforce come to a standstill, and so notoriously irritable does it make every one, that a familiar proverb enjoins discreet people not "to ask a favour in the Solano." Here we find the sugar-cane, and the

cotton plant, the banana, the fig, the palm, the date, pomegranate, lemon, citron, orange, aloe, cactus, and rice, as well as certain varieties of grape, from which are made the potent wines of the peninsula. In brief, Spain, under conditions better than have obtained for some centuries, ought to be one of the most prosperous countries in Europe, since within its own borders it has every climate and every product. That unhappily is not the case, for while there are few railways—less than 3,700 miles—the roads are so bad that the principal transport is effected by means of mules, and the canals which in brief glimpses of stable government and prosperity were begun, have in most cases been left unfinished, and almost useless either for navigation or irrigation. Portugal, owing to its proximity to the sea, is cooler. Here we have also considerable variety of climate, since in the northern winters much rain falls, and snow covers the interior hills, while in the south the white coat is unknown. In this region the cold season is so brief that by January it is over, by February spring is fairly in, and by Midsummer the crops have been housed. Though Spain and Portugal are at present separate kingdoms, yet they are essentially one country, inhabited by the same people speaking dialects of the same tongue, and what have at different times been united under one head. Both countries are very backward. Scarcely a fourth of their area is improved. About one-eleventh, chiefly in Asturias and Catalonia in Spain, is covered with timber, and three-fifths are believed to be in pasture, the horses, mules, asses, and goats of the peninsula being famous throughout Europe. In Castile, Leon, and Aragon the sheep, of which there are about 20,000,000 in the country, pasture during the summer in the uplands, and at the approach of winter are driven to the lower lands in flocks of 10,000 each, each proprietor along the line of march being compelled, by the ancient "mesta" law, to reserve free a width of ninety paces on each side of the road, for the food and accommodation of these "cabañas," which form the main source of the country's wealth in the districts named. But the people have as yet done little to develop the resources of their country. No race in Europe bore a greater reputation in the past than these Iberians: few at the present moment bulk less in the esteem of the surrounding nations. The possession of the greater part of the New World, and much of Asia, Africa, and Europe, raised for a time the peninsula to the highest point of prosperity. But the prosperity was hollow, for it seemed to exhaust the energies of the people, and leave them powerless and less fit to engage in the struggle for existence than before. At all events, from that period when the fame of Spain and Portugal was at its highest, the country and the people have gradually sunk, until they are now among the poorest and most degraded in Europe. Of late they have attempted to throw off their apathy, despite the frequent interruptions of civil war. Religious bigotry also retards all sound advancement; but though the prospects of the peninsula do not seem very bright, and the upper classes are steeped in the most absurd pride of birth, and incapability of seeing the ridiculous figure they cut in the eyes of the rest of the world, the great body of the people, if ignorant and superstitious, are neither idle nor vicious. The basis of their race are the Celtic Iberians: hence the Spaniard is a hot-blooded individual, not invariably gifted with the logical faculty. But in the course of ages Phœnicians, Romans, Germans, and Moors contributed their admixture to the old stock, until at the present time the Iberian race is perhaps more widely removed from the Celtic type than any other which was originally derived from that wide-

spread people. In tongue they are Latins. The Arabs (Moors), during their possession of the southern and south-eastern coast lands, intermarried considerably with the population, and their features, and many words of their language, yet remain among the Spaniards

SPANISH PEASANT.

of that part of the country. In the mountains south of the Douro there is still a remnant of the old Germanic invaders. The Spanish Basques, or Vascones, do not number over half a million, and inhabit the northern Cantabrian mountains, where they still cherish their ancient tongue; while the Gallegos of Galicia are said to speak a language allied more to the Portuguese than to the Spanish.

Spain occupies the greatest part of the peninsula. It is three and a half times larger than England, and possesses a population—exclusive of the Canaries and Balearic Isles—numbering 16,053,960, or more than four-fifths of the whole inhabitants of the peninsula.* For administrative purposes the country is divided into forty-nine districts, though the old sovereignties, which are now comprised within the present kingdom, are historically of more interest. Spain has also several colonies, most of which we have visited in the course of our travels, but the Balearic islands in the Mediterranean, and the Canaries in the Atlantic, are considered integral parts of the mother country, and are administered in exactly the same fashion. In addition to its flocks and herds, and various crops already noticed, Spain abounds in mineral wealth. Its copper and quicksilver, indeed, attracted the attention of the Phœnicians and the Romans. The quicksilver mine of Almaden is famous all over the world; Galicia yields cobalt in sufficient abundance to supply the rest of Europe, and in Murcia and some of the adjoining districts there is lead ore enough to be worked for ages before it is exhausted. At Guadalcanal occurs silver associated with lead, while the copper mines of Rio Tinto, west of Seville, have for long been yielding immense quantities of the finest ore. Iron is mined in various parts of the country, and coal is found in almost every province; and though raised in various places, the amount is trifling, owing to the difficulties which want of carriage puts in the way of its being sent to market. In addition to the salt obtained from the sea on various parts of the coast, there are exhaustless mines of rock-salt in Catalonia. Near Cordova, in that province, is the famous mountain of salt, which is often visited by tourists intent on witnessing the brilliant spectacle of the sun reflected from its surface.

Spain at one time manufactured many articles of importance. But nowadays its factories are unimportant, and confined to a few towns, such as Barcelona and Terragona, where cotton and woollen goods are woven; Madrid, Valencia, Grenada, Seville, and Toledo, the chief seat of the silk weavers; Barcelona and Geruna, where the principal paper-mills are situated; Biscay, and Trubia, in Asturias, the home of iron, copper, and brass-workers; and Seville, Cordova, and Valladolid, famous for leather wares. In Madrid there are many factories for making arms and munitions of war, and, of course, as a wealthy city, there centre the artists of every description who have a speciality for manufacturing articles calculated to lighten the pockets of the residents or visitors. Tobacco manufacture is a monopoly carried on in seven Government factories, and among the ironfoundries of Spain are those of Barcelona, Bilbao, celebrated for its mountain of fine magnetic iron ore, and Toledo, which has become proverbial for its splendid blades. In the seaports of Ferrol, Coruña, Cadiz, Valencia, and Barcelona, some ship-building and the manufacture of cordage, sails, and other stores requisite for equipping the ships, are always going on, while in the south the cork trade commands the attention of a large number of people. On the sea-coast barilla is manufactured from seaweeds, and over many sandy tracts the growth of the esparto grass, now so extensively used in the manufacture of paper, affords employment to a considerable population. Fruits, wines, cereals, and other country produce swell the returns of Spanish exports, though its commerce does not compare with that of some of the neighbouring countries not nearly so rich, or favoured

* "Resultados generales del Censo de la Poblacion de España en 31 de Diciembre de 1877" (1879).

with such fine harbours. The country is, however, progressing, though the heavy import duties hamper trade and encourage smuggling to an extent which does not obtain elsewhere in Europe. Its total imports amount to £16,000,000; its exports to £17,253,000. Its revenue was last year £32,191,552, and its expenditure £33,129,184, of which £11,579,145 were absorbed in paying interest on its public debt of £515,000,000. It need scarcely be added that the finances of Spain are in a desperate plight; the country is living from hand to mouth, and though the interest on the debt is regularly debited in the Budget, it must not on that account be supposed that it is as regularly paid. In reality, to quote the words of King Alfonso's Finance Minister, the national creditors cannot be satisfied "without having recourse to credit operations at an enormous rate of interest, which in a short time doubles the original debt." The Cuban rebellion has for years been the cause of life being drained out of Spain, already weak nigh to death with the Carlist civil war, waged solely in the interest of Don Carlos, an adventurer who considered that the renunciation of the claim which his father had made on the crown was not binding on him, and no way for the benefit of the country or the people at large, has been the main cause of this monstrous load of debt. The almost continual revolutions which have disturbed the country since Queen Isabella fled in 1868 have likewise been ruinous to it. Unless it be from enemies within, Spain has at the present moment nothing to fear from any one. Yet the army is on a peace footing of 90,000 men, and on a war footing of 450,000, while the navy consists of 121 steamers carrying 525 guns, and manned by 504 officers and 14,000 men. Spain possesses on the African shore the ports of Ceuta and Melilla; but, on the other hand, if she holds these patches of Moorish territory, it rankles in her breast that on the opposite shore of the Strait of Gibraltar the British cannon bristle on the rock fortress of the same name. This strong place, so famous in the annals of war, towering above the sea to the height of 1,439 feet, is only about three miles long, and, with the exception of the town of 18,000 people, may be described as an almost impregnable fortress, of rock-cut galleries and batteries manned by 7,000 British soldiers. The inhabitants, exclusive of the army, are mainly Spaniards, Jews, Maltese, and that nondescript "riffraff" of all nations familiarly known as "rock scorpions," who extract a livelihood out of the military, smuggling, and general traffic. "Jabel Tarik," or Tarik's Mountain—to use the Arab name of which Gibraltar is the corruption—has been a British possession since 1704, and as it commands the strait is likely to continue such, unless British ideas regarding the value of "Gib" considerably change.

Another bit of foreign territory, in or on the borders of Spain, is the little State of *Andorra*, perched in one of the valleys of the Pyrenees in the north of Catalonia. In reality the little State is the oldest republic in the world, and as a sovereign or semi-sovereign power is much more ancient than Spain itself, or speaking generally, of any government in Europe. Its origin is somewhat traditionary; but the usual account given is that it owes its foundation to Charlemagne, who signalised in this way his gratitude to the warlike tribe of that region who rendered him good service in one of his battles against the Moors. Very little is accurately known either about the people or their country, since they lie out of the beaten track, and can only be reached after a toilsome journey over mountain paths. They are variously stated to number

from 4,000 to 18,000, and live chiefly by pastoral operations and by mining the iron which exists in their mountains. Their rulers are a Council General of twenty-four members, elected by the heads of families of each parish; but they are also under the suzerainty of France and the Spanish Bishop of Urgel. There are two syndics, to the first of whom is apportioned the executive power. Judicial functions are entrusted to two "viguiers" and a civil judge. France and the Bishop of Urgel name each a viguier, and the civil judge is nominated alternately by the two suzerains. The republic pays to France every year a tribute of 960 francs, and 891 francs to the Bishop of

VIEW OF ALICANTE, SPAIN.

Urgel. The Pope nominates the clergy, and hence so many different powers having an interest in preserving intact the independence of the little republic, it has managed for twelve centuries to maintain itself in its mountain home. How long this is likely to continue is doubtful; for the Andorrese, not content with their present blessings, are wearying to grow rich, and have with a view to that end been listening to the proposals of gambling speculators, who propose erecting in their quiet valley an establishment similar to that of Monaco. To this the French viguier and his Government object equally with the Bishop of Urgel. The Andorrese are, however, bent on the project, which they imagine is to bring them untold wealth, and accordingly France and Spain have resolved, if they prove refractory, to surround their valley with a cordon of troops in order to prevent the republicans demoralising themselves after the manner they seem so eager to do.

Portugal occupies a seaward strip of the peninsula, somewhat larger than Ireland, but containing a population of only 4,750,000, which is considerably less than that of the Emerald Isle. Its seventeen provinces are ruled after much the same manner as Spain, and, like it, Portugal is governed by a limited monarch, who makes up for his diminished importance in modern times by styling himself "King of Portugal and Algarve within and beyond the seas; in Africa Seigneur of Guinea, and of the navigation and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and the Indies." Its resources are naturally much the same as those of Spain, of which it is geographically only a part, though the people have for ages cherished a rivalry and even antipathy to each other. Wheat, oats, maize, and the usual crops of temperate climate, flourish in the elevated tracts; the famous wines of the Douro yield the "port" so long associated with this part of the peninsula; and in the hotter low-lying tracts oranges, rice, almonds, olives, citrons, and the usual fruits of such a climate grow in great luxuriance. Pine, oak, chestnut, and cork are the chief forest trees; while manganese, antimony, lead, and other minerals, including coal, are found in the mountains, though, with the exception of salt, which is obtained in large quantities from the coast lagoons, and is held in much esteem, the mineral trade of the country is trifling. The coast fisheries of tunny and sardines are more important. Its linen, cotton, and silk fabrics are also entitled to hold a high place among such manufactures, while the busy trade which centres in the principal port of Lisbon, a city of 240,000 inhabitants at the mouth of the Tagus, and Oporto (110,000 people), afford a marked contrast to the sleepy harbours of most of Spain, or the still greater dulness of its inland capital, where everything is essentially Spanish. Lisbon, on the contrary, is cosmopolitan, and a meeting-place for men of all nations. In 1880 the revenue of the country was estimated at £6,200,000, and its expenditure at something over that modest figure. The consolidated national debt is £77,873,000, a fact not to be surprised at, since for nearly thirty years there was no Budget without a deficit. There is also a large floating debt variously estimated at from £2,500,000 to £1,000,000. Attempts have of late years been made to reduce the national indebtedness, but as Portugal has more than once been behindhand with its interest, and has even repudiated some of its loans, the world is rather chary in ministering to its necessities. The various colonies of Portugal we have already noticed. For the purpose of protecting them, and also of home defence, not likely to be required, an army of 28,000 men is maintained, and a navy of forty-one rather indifferent vessels. The dream of the Spanish revolutionaries are an Iberian Republic; but apart from the fact that no large section of the country sympathises with them, the long-standing enmities and dialectical differences of language are likely to keep the two kingdoms apart, as they have been since the people expelled the Spanish kings who had usurped the crown and elected Dom João the Fortunate, of Braganza, their monarch. The country is, however, progressing, though not rapidly. Popular education is at a low stand, though professional training is well provided for in the University of Coimbra, and in various high schools, art academies, and lyceums. About 720 miles of railway are open, and the roads are becoming better than they were. Still Portugal has much to learn and much to do before she can regain her lost position among the European nations. Her load of debt weighs her to the earth, and the

inflated vanity of her wordy self-seeking statesmen are not likely ever to do much to help the country they dominate.*

Italy.

The Peninsula of Italy is, like Spain, an Alpine country, the plains of any extent being few in number, and the mountains prominent in every direction. In the north the Alps form the boundary wall, sloping down rather abruptly to the plains of Lombardy which they surround. This plain is one of the richest parts of the peninsula, though the inhabitants are among the poorest and most degraded. In few places does it rise over 300 feet above the sea-level, and bears the impress of having at one time formed part of the neighbouring Adriatic Sea, which had become filled up by the *débris* worn off the Alpine slopes by the winter and spring torrents pouring down their sides. Indeed, the Po, which flows through the plain and forms the principal river of Italy, and indeed the only one of any consequence, is daily encroaching on the domain of the ocean. The amount of mud which it bears on its surface from its sources, and those of its tributaries in Lake Maggiore, Lake Como, Lake Iseo, and Lake di Garda, is so great that the delta at its mouth is every year enlarging, and the town of Adria, which was at one time a port, and indeed gives its name to the Adriatic, is now an inland village. The Apennines run like a backbone down the centre of the peninsula, from the French maritime Alps to Cape Spartivento in the south. But in the course of this distance of nearly 700 miles, the narrow peninsula, in no place more than 300 miles broad, and in general only about 100, gets cut up by lateral offshoots from the main chain. In some cases, indeed, they alter their course and become parallel, enclosing valleys with their own systems of drainage, which forms such rivers as the Tiber, Arno, Garigliano, Volturno, Salto, and Chiana. In most cases, however, the streams of Italy flow at right angles to the chain of the Apennines. The other plains of Italy, in addition to that mentioned, are few in number. But among the lowlands may be mentioned the plain of the Arno on which Florence is built, which on the coast flows through the feverish marsh of the Maremma, the scarcely less salubrious Campagna, extending, bare and dreary, to the north of Rome, until it joins the marshes at the mouth of the Tiber, which stretch more or less continuously for sixty miles along the coast to the Pontine marshes, notorious for their malarious character, and the flat on which Naples stands, so noted for its fertility that it has received the name of Campagna Felice —the "happy plain." But all these lowlands are trifling in extent with the Lombardy plain, which we have already noticed, as extending on either side of the Po. Spurs of the Alps and Apennines interrupt its continuity in the north, and near Vicenza the Euganean Hills stand isolated from amid the surrounding flats. But in all other parts so

* Davillier: "L'Espagne" (1873); Rose: "Among the Spanish People" (1876): Ford; "Spain" (1876); Willkomm: "Das pyrenäische Halbinselland" (1866); Crawfurd: "Portugal, Old and New" (1879); Barros e Cunha: "Hoje" (1868); Balbi; "Essai statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal" (1862); Vogel: "Le Portugal et ses Colonies" (1866); Le Teillais: "Etude historique economique et politique sur les Colonies portugaisse" (1872); Pery: Geographia e Estatistica Geral de Portugal e Colonias" (1875); Sayer: "Gibraltar" (1862); Mann: "Gibraltar" (1870); Bidewell: "Balearic Islands" (1877); "Die Balearen" (Leipsic, 1871); Kellaart: "Flora Calpensis" (1846), etc.

extremely level is it, that for 200 miles not even an eminence relieves the eye. The tributaries of the great rivers which course through it afford the most ample facilities for irrigation. Hence the naturally rich alluvium of which the plain is composed is among the most fertile of all the Italian soils. Wheat and rice are everywhere produced in abundance, and the peasant proprietors of the farms of from ten to sixty acres, each divided off from the others by rows of fruit or forest trees, ought to rank among the most fortunate of their class. This, however, would not appear to be the lot of the labourers, who are represented as poverty stricken in a degree scarcely known in even the land of poverty and plenty which their race inhabits. Unlike, however, most of the other lowlands of Italy, which are so malarious after nightfall that they are fatal to strangers, and cannot even be inhabited all the year round by the natives, the plain of Lombardy is, as a rule, healthy, except along the Adriatic lagoons and flooded rice lands. The principal season for rain is summer and autumn, and so temperate is the climate that at Milan the mean is 55·2° Fah., and at Venice 55·4°. Italy, with the exception of these and a few minor flats, is a picturesque land, abounding in varied scenery, but contrary to what we might expect from its mountainous character, with little of the bold features of Alpine countries generally. The plain of Naples is one of the flattest in Italy, except when varied by the outbursts of Vesuvius, the famous volcano in its vicinity. But volcanic scenery is rarely grand, except when in the act of being formed. After the eruption is over, the brown or black bare masses of lava, which take ages to get clothed with vegetation, look repulsive, as does every form of scenery not softened or toned down by plant-life, or varied by glimpses of water, which in these regions is not often present.

Italy, however, after making allowance for classical rhapsody, is a delectable country for those who can bear heat. Yet the winter climate is so cold that visitors from the north complain of what the Roman poets styled the "biting frost," and even in summer the midday sun is no criterion of the chilly damp which so often creeps over the landscape after dark. The sun is indeed more trying than the cold, and an Italian proverb declares that only "dogs and Englishmen" walk in it, "Christians"—that is, of course, themselves—preferring the shade. Italy, altogether, is a treacherous land for the invalid, though its balmy atmosphere, attractive open air sights, and pleasing associations, will never fail to draw to it visitors from every land, which has any claims to be a sharer in the glorious legacy which the mistress of the world has bequeathed to civilisation. Like Spain, Italy nurtures nearly every product. On the higher mountains the ibex and the chamois find their homes beside the glaciers; lower down snow is rarely seen, and by evening the tourist who has lunched in the Arctic regions may sup in a valley fragrant with orange groves, and other tropical and semi-tropical fruits. The southern part of the peninsula, as well as the off-lying islands like Sicily, are almost tropical. The sky is never clouded, and the temperature rarely falls to the freezing point, except when the chilly *tramontana*, or the Adriatic *bora*, blows, or when the *sirocco* of the African deserts raises the mercury to fever heat. The sugar-cane, the banyan, and the dwarf palm flourish everywhere in the open air, while the gardens are luxuriant with olives, grape-vines, pine-apples, and bananas. In such a country,

were the industry of the people equal to their opportunities, riches ought to be abundant. The farmers of Tuscany and Lombardy are the principal rearers of the twelve or thirteen million pounds' weight of silk which are produced yearly. Agriculture occupies the greatest number of the people. Two-thirds of the country is under some kind of culture, and over the mountain pastures and great plains, like the Campagna, roam vast herds of neat cattle, swine, mules, and the buffalo, which in the recollection of every visitor to Italy is so associated with that region. The rivers abound with fish, as does the sea laving either shore of the peninsula. The sponge and coral fisheries are noted sources of Italian wealth, and though iron, zinc, and lead are worked and exported to the extent of about £100,000 per annum, the mineral wealth of the country is as yet little developed. Sulphur is indeed its principal resource in this line, while the white marble of Carrara and Massa, in the north-west coast of Tuscany, have for ages been celebrated in all the studios of Europe. Its chief exports are silk and oil, but the manufactures of the country, which chiefly centre in a few towns, are not so important nowadays as when Milan and Florence were famous for their woollen fabrics, and Venice for its dyes. However, within the last few years, a great advance has been made in this direction. Upwards of 4,000 miles of railways have done much to bring markets within the reach of the manufacturers, and the drawbacks of the mountain barrier which shuts out Italy from the rest of Europe have been to a great extent overcome by the piercing the Alps by the Mont Cenis and Gothard tunnels, and by the line over the Brenner Pass, which brings, or will bring, Turin, Milan, Genoa, and Venice in direct communication with the trans-Alpine countries.

The Italian people are a welding together af many races, originally speaking different languages, though, in spite of the spoken tongue showing many traces in its dialect of this original state of matters, they now all speak the Romaic version of the language descended from the old Latin. The people are still extremely ignorant and degraded. The perfect religious freedom which has prevailed since the destruction of the temporal power of the Pope, and equally as much the sweeping away of the many despotic little sovereignties into which the country was so long divided, have done much to alter this. The United Kingdom is aiming at the advancement of education by schools and colleges. Of these there are many, not to mention the twenty-two universities scattered over the country. Since 1870, when Rome became the capital of United Italy, the kingdom has taken its proper rank among the powers of Europe. It is now a country—including the Islands of Sicily and Sardinia—not much smaller than Great Britain, with a population of over 28,000,000, a revenue of £56,559,662, and a debt of £390,000,000. In 1880, King Humbert had at his command an army of 220,000 men, capable of being raised to a war-footing of 1,200,000, and a navy of seventy-three vessels manned by 15,000 seamen. Italy is thus a power in Europe such as she never was when broken into a number of sovereignties ruled by Austrian princes and other petty potentates. But at the same time, to keep up this grandeur requires money and heavy taxation. The result is that there is great distress over the country, and much discontent. Emigration, which was little in vogue prior to 1869, has, during the last ten years, been assuming alarming proportions. It is undoubtedly true that

Italy is over-taxed, and that her army and navy are unreasonably large for a country inhabited by a very poor people, who are not likely either to be threatened by their neighbours or to revolt against their rulers. Island Italy is also extremely interesting, and

WOMEN OF THE CAMPAGNA AT ROME.

could we devote more space to this kingdom would deserve a longer account. For instance, *Sardinia*, a mountain mass 150 miles long, is the nucleus of the little kingdom which swallowed up the fat duchies on the mainland, and in the end even Naples and Rome. *Elba* is a little isle, chiefly famous because for a brief period it was the first Napoleon's place of exile. *Capri* is noted in Roman history as the retreat of the Emperor Tiberius,

and the tiny rock islet of *Caprera*, in modern times, as the home of Garibaldi. *Sicily* is still more famous as the island on which is the volcano of Ætna, 10,840 feet. It is also very mountainous, the chief range being evidently a continuation of the Apennines on the mainland. The Lipari Islands are a volcanic group, the principal of which, Stromboli, is almost continually active. But just as Spain has Andorra within its limits, so Italy possesses the Republic of *San Marino* on the north-east slope of the Apennines. This tiny State, which comprises only twenty-four square miles of area, was founded in the fifth century, and though even yet it only possesses 7,000 citizens, it has ever maintained its independence.*

Malta, with its smaller satellites, Gozo and Comino, belongs to Great Britain, which maintains a large garrison here, and uses it as the head-quarters of the Mediterranean fleet. The principal island is only seventeen miles long, densely populated by over 150,000 wretched labourers, who find employment in fishing, boating, agriculture, and labour, and a few hundred proud, poor, and useless native nobles, whose absurd hierarchy we found in force, and have maintained much to the impoverishment of the island. The Maltese are at present largely intermixed with stragglers from most of the Mediterranean races. But originally, they may be described as Italians with Arab grafts, and their tongue partakes both of the Italian and the Arabic elements. Their island has changed masters so frequently that patriotism, as we understand it, can scarcely be said to exist. They certainly are not, as a rule, fond of the British: but they like us better than they did the French, and undoubtedly our rule is milder and more equable than was that of the Knights of Malta, whose fief it is, and whose gloomy old palaces at Medina and Valetta serve nowadays for our government offices. The island is an extremely interesting one, though the Maltese, justly or unjustly, bear a name not much better than do the Gibraltar people, or the Cypriotes. But there is this excuse for them, that they are very poor, and have never from the earliest period had a very virtuous example set them. They, however, cling to their isles, though sunk in appalling poverty, the idea of emigration not having yet seized them, and sooner or later the Government must seriously take this question into consideration.†

Greece.

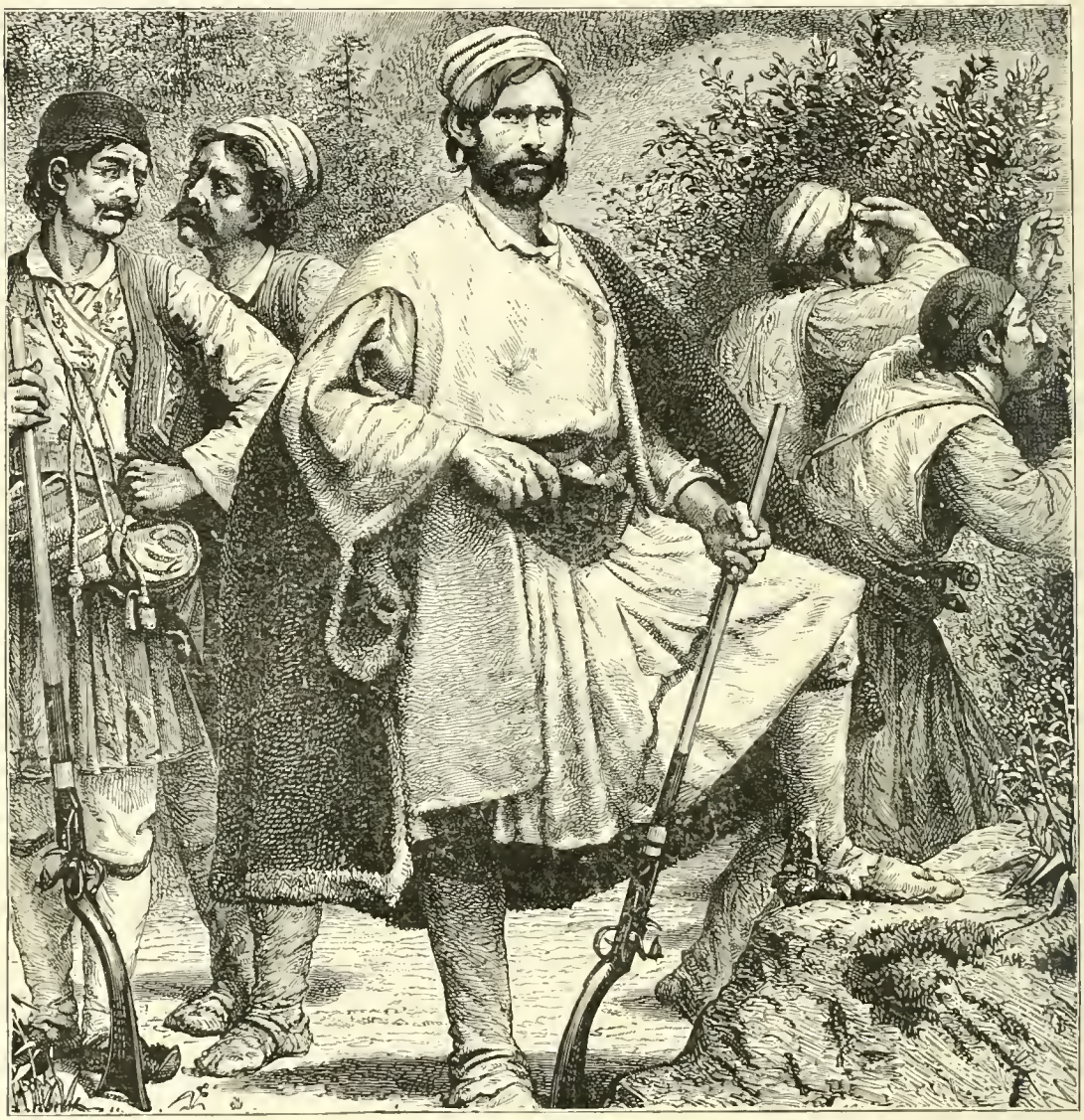
In some respects the famous kingdom of Greece is even more interesting than that of Italy, and more deserving, so far as its people are concerned, of a fuller notice than we can give it in this place, though in another work an ample account will be given of the Greeks and their ways of life. At one time it spread over the greater part of what now constitutes Turkey in Europe, and over many of the islands now claimed by that Empire, Great Britain, Italy, and Spain, while its capital was, intellectually, Athens,

* Bent: "A Freak of Freedom" (1878).

† Gallenga: "Italy Revisited" (1876); Comyns-Carr: "North Italian Folk" (1879); Muzzi: "Vocabolario geografico-storico-statistico dell' Italia" (1873—74); Story: "Roba di Roma" (1870); Phillips: "Vesuvius" (1870); Rodwell: "Ætna" (1878); Brydone: "A Tour through Sicily and Malta" (1806); Badger: "Description of Malta" (1838); Murray's Handbooks (1879); Davy: "Notes," (1842); etc. etc.

but politically, Constantinople. After it managed, sixty years ago, to rise successfully against the Turks, who for nearly four centuries had dominated it, the jealousies of the European Powers permitted the Greeks to recover only a moiety of their former country. In fact, of old Hellas it obtained only the southern part of the Balkan peninsula, and one or two of the islands in the immediate neigbourhood. The Congress of Berlin, as a recompense for the Greeks' abstention from hostilities against Turkey at the period of the Russo-Turkish war in 1876–7, promised to increase their boundaries by a portion of Thessaly and Epirus. After many negotiations, the case stands where it did. Greece has, as yet, got little satisfaction, and at the moment of writing is not yet free from the danger of a war, the end of which it is difficult to forecaste. The country is exceedingly mountainous, and is so broken up by bays, gulfs, and islands as to render it as one easily accessible, and yet difficult to penetrate. Taking into account the mainland part of Roumelia, the Peninsula of Morea, or the Peloponnesus, joined to the former by the narrow Isthmus of Corinth, the islands of the Ægean and the Ionian group, which, after being for some years under the protectorate of England were handed over to her, modern Greece, as at present constituted, comprises territories of less area than Scotland, though as a rule richer than the northern part of that country. It is everywhere rugged with hills, on the highest of which snow lies for several months in the year, though down in the valleys the summer heat is all but tropical. The climate, generally, is healthy, though during the warm season some of the marshy low ground exude malarious vapours. No part of the country is very lofty, unless we except Mount Kiona on the mainland, which is 8,240 feet in height, and the classic Parnassus (Liakura), not far distant from it. Mount St. Elias, and a few other peaks, attain likewise some elevation, while of the level grounds, the plains of Bœotia and Messinia are the most extensive, though even these flats are of very limited extent. It also follows that the Greek rivers are little more than torrents of no value to the sailor, and owing to their uncertain volume at different seasons of the year not of much use even to the farmer for irrigating purposes. Some of the streams in the Morea arise in lakes, and meander for some distance underground before coming to light. For example, the basin of the Stymphalus is emptied by a river which courses underground for twenty-five miles, appearing for the first time in Argolis, where it is known as the Erasinus. As might be expected, both for the political history of the country and the nature of its surface, agriculture is very backward in Greece. Only about one-third of the surface is capable of culture, and less than a sixth is under any kind of tillage. A large part of the mountain tracts is clothed with fine forests of pine and other trees, of which little use is made, except for fuel or local wants. Wolves, foxes, and wild boars still find shelter in their great jungles, which are the most marked features of Phocis, Erymanthus, and Cyllene, but in other parts the country has been denuded of its trees for the purpose of obtaining resin, timber for shipbuilding, fuel, and other purposes, without young ones being planted in their places. The result is, that the soil gets parched during droughts and swept by torrents during rains. The country does not supply the wants of the inhabitants. A considerable amount of wheat is grown, but as barley constitutes the principal food of the poorer classes, it has to be imported from Russia and other countries. The light soils which prevail are, however, well

adapted for the growth of fruit trees and the vine. The olive, fig, almonds, oranges, and other fruits fitted for the climate are grown, and the vine is extensively cultivated, but, as the art of wine-making is still very primitive, the result is not held in high esteem



GREEK BRIGANDS.

outside of the Greek borders. The tiny dried grapes, familiar to all the world as Corinths or currants, which are grown along the shores of the Peloponnesus, are, however, more valued, and tobacco, cotton, and sugar-cane are also cultivated, though more with a view to the home than the foreign market. Greece, as an agricultural country, is not much advanced on what it was during the Turkish occupation, and even the herds of sheep, goats, and oxen which pasture the lesser hills or woods, are for the

most part of very inferior breeds. But honey, for which in classical times Mount Hymettus was famous, is still a "leading article" in Greece, and is so extensively prepared for the market that a tax on bees forms one of the most important sources of national revenue. Manufactures, unless we except a little cotton, wool, and silk-weaving, scarcely exist. Shipbuilding is carried on in several of the ports, and in all the little towns there are a few local industries, such as the preparation of gause, morocco leather, harness, &c., and in Athens the printing and production of the profuse though ephemeral literature on which the modern Greek nourishes his patriotism, or by means of which he acquires that education for which to his credit he shows such eagerness and aptitude, though even yet a large percentage of the population can neither read nor write. But while the Greek does not take readily to handicrafts, and is a poor farmer, he excels as a sailor and trader. All over the Levant Greek ships and Greek seamen are to be met. In every port which does any business at all Greek merchants are met with, keen at trade, and scandal will sometimes whisper not wanting in those arts in the censure of which their own poets have not been sparing.

Gold, copper, lead, coal, sulphur, magnesia, emery, marble, and other minerals and rocks of value are found in Greece. Nevertheless, the mining enterprise of modern times has not been marked. Indeed, with the exception of the lead and silver exported by the Laurium company, and the marble which was formerly so extensively used for public buildings, these underground treasures of Greece are as yet little utilised.

The people, though as we have seen not quite the lineal descendants of the ancient race who ruled and civilised so much of the world, has many qualities well fitted for the part which they aspire to play. The "Cogging Greek" may, in business matters, be occasionally a knave, and it is undoubted that he is not simple minded where trade is concerned. But, on the other hand, his wits are sharp, and, with a wider field in which to exercise them, he might in time abate something of that over acuteness which has given him so invidious a reputation. He is over taught for the place he has to occupy. The country is poor, and the room for educated men too little. The Greek takes to politics as to a trade. Everybody feels interested in the affairs of State, and discusses them with a confidence which, if often savouring of rodomontade and swagger, is a sign of vitality which might be turned to good account. But when a young man leaves the University of Athens or of Corfu, and finds no occupation by which he can earn his bread, he naturally turns to the trade of politics; and as it is only possible for one set of men to feed on the sweets of office at the same moment, not unnaturally the aspiring young graduate, as soon as he gets into the *Boule*, or single chamber of legislature, uses his best efforts to turn out the then incumbents in order to make room for his friends and—himself. Hence the endless parties and combinations which are for ever disturbing good government in Greece, the knavery which is unhappily characteristic of many of its politicians, and the ministries which succeed one another with such bewildering frequency. Under their sovereign, George I., second son of the King of Denmark, they have attained greater prosperity than at any period since they threw off the yoke of Turkey, and if they do not wreck their present and damage their future by blind vanity and head-strongness, the Greeks, which for sixty years have been the spoilt children of Europe, may

attain the position to which the mighty past of the country, and the never-failing gallantry of her sons, entitle her. The fifteen nomarchies into which the country is divided contained, in 1879, 1,679,775 people, the majority of them Christians of the Greek rite. A few were Roman Catholics, some Jews, and a handful, in the region bordering Turkey, of the Mussulman faith. With the exception of Athens, which has 69,000 people, none of the cities are populous. Patras has 35,000 people. The Piræus, which is the port of Athens, and is connected with it by a seven mile line of railway—the only one in the country—has 22,000; Sparta, 12,000; Corinth, 7,600; Ergasteria, 6,500; and Thebes less than 6,000. Athens is practically a modern city. The olive and vine-clad plain, and the hill of Lykabettos on which it partially stands, is as it was in the palmy days of Greece. The Acropolis, on Mars' Hill, the Parthenon, the temple of Jupiter Olympus, the temple of Theseus, and a few minor ruins serve to remind the visitor of what Greece and its capital once was. But the *cafés*, the hotels, and the private dwellings and shops are nearly all erections which date from the year 1830, when the city superseded Livadia as the metropolis of the new kingdom of Greece. The people are intensely patriotic. Indeed, their patriotism too frequently takes the form of an insensate boasting, which does not improve them in the good opinion of the outside world, and especially of those "Franks" to whom, in spite of the Byronic injunction, they still "trust." Even yet they have much to do and learn before obtaining from Europe the place they so persistently claim. There is scarcely a road worthy of the name; the houses of the peasants are miserable and their ideas of comfort primitive; public morality is low; order non-existant in many parts of the kingdom, and on the Turkish border especially; brigandage (p. 280) rampant without the Government using much effort to suppress it; and, as was too clearly demonstrated, is even winked at by men considered of sufficient consequence to sit in the king's cabinet. The revenue for 1880 was about £1,668,437; but the expenditure was, as usual, more. The public debt of Greece is at present (1881) about £11,270,000, a considerable portion of which consists of the arrears of unpaid interest on loans. Greece is, indeed, as a defaulter, on a par with Turkey. There were a few loans guaranteed for her by the Powers. On these interest was paid, though mainly out of funds reserved from the loans themselves, and after this source dried up out of the treasuries of the guaranteeing Powers, to whom, therefore, Greece is heavily indebted. The war preparations during the years 1878, 1879, and 1880 have almost completed the ruin of the State. The annexation of Thessaly and Epirus would give Greece a total population of 2,080,000, and an increase of area equal to that of Holland and Belgium. In ten years trade has increased 50 per cent., but the new loans of £3,350,000, which have been contracted within the last five or six years, have nearly all gone to make up the successive deficits in the Budget. In other words, the expenditure since 1874 has averaged £450,000 more than the income. The only available source of revenue is the sale of the crown lands, which comprise 5,400,000 acres, or about half the kingdom. The official returns show that little use is made of them, since of the arable lands three-fifths are untilled. The presence of brigands retards the progress of the country; but the want of roads retards it infinitely more so. Marathon, for instance, grows very fine wheat, yet, though

it is only twenty-five miles from Athens, the citizens of that place have to get their supplies from Odessa, the freight from Marathon to Athens being £6 per ton. Yet, the taxes are as barely £1 per head against £2 per head in Italy, and the total indebtedness is only £7 per head, or half the average of Italy. This is equal to about seven years of revenue, or the same ratio which obtains in Austria-Hungary. An army of 11,460 men is a terrible burden on the State, though in reality, if put on its war footing, it could be raised to 40,000 men, or, with reserves, to 200,000. Even the little fleet of ten ships which has its head-quarters at Poros, in the Gulf of Ægina, though none too many for the safety of the country, is a grievous load on the bankrupt State, whose exports and imports do not in all amount to seven millions sterling, and whose monarch's salary of £40,178 per annum is supplemented by a yearly purse of £12,000, made up by the Governments of Great Britain, France, and Russia. In brief, what Greece requires is more home industry and less foreign expectations, fewer politicians and more farmers, more work and less talk.*

The islands of the Ægean belong to Turkey and Greece, though most of them are inhabited by a Greek-speaking population. Crete is one of these, Cyprus is another, and Rhodes is a third, though there are several others, like Chios, so recently visited by destructive earthquakes, of less importance. Samos is a Turkish island, though it is Greek in every other respect, and is under an autonomous government, administered by a Christian prince paying tribute to the Porte. Crete has also a semi-autonomous government, and *Cyprus*, which is essentially a Greek island, is held in trust for the Turkish Government by the British, who had it ceded to them by a private arrangement entered into with the Sultan just prior to the assembling of the Berlin Congress in 1878. It has an area of 6,348 square miles, and a population of 180,000. The island is rich, and as a rule tolerably healthy though at certain seasons, and especially near the coast, fevers are endemic. The interior is lofty, being traversed by two ranges of mountains—the one running parallel to the northern coast, the other to the southern coast. Nicosia, in the centre, is the capital, though Larnaka (p. 285) and Limasol on the south coast, and Famagusta on the east, are the places at which any commerce of consequence is done. The copper mines of Cyprus gave it great importance in ancient times. Fine cotton is grown, and its wine—though not much to the taste of moderns—was at one time famous, while the ruins, of what seemed at one time to have been large towns show how, in the course of time, under Greek, Venetian, and Turkish masters the island has fallen off from its former state, possibly by-and-by to revive into greater fame than ever.†

Roumania.

This newly-established kingdom need not occupy our space to any great extent. Originally, it was composed of the two principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia under separate rulers. Then the Turkish Government assumed the direct government of it. At a

* Mounsey: "Reports of Embassy and Legation" for 1880; Sergeant: "New Greece" (1878); and for the most recent literature on the country the list of authorities appended.

† Baker: "Cyprus" (1879), Lang: "Cyprus" (1878); Dixon: "Cyprus" (1878); Loher: "Cyprus" (1878); etc. etc.

later date the Sultan granted to the provinces a direct autonomy, permitting the people to elect their own princes, only stipulating for the recognition of his power as Suzerain and the payment of a small tribute. The two principalities then united, and at the close of the Crimean war Bessarabia was taken from Russia and added to the Roumanian territory. During the late Russo-Turkish struggle, Prince Charles threw himself into the war on the side of Russia, and as a reward received absolute independence, though he had to exchange Bessarabia for the swampy Dobrutscha, or low-lying lands at the mouth of the Danube. At a still later date, viz., in March, 1881, he declared himself king. The entire monarchy is not over 49,300 square miles in area, and at the date of the last census contained 5,376,000 inhabitants. The majority of them are Roumans, that is to say, the old Dacian colonists, of Italian origin, who have in the course of ages largely intermixed with the natives and even with the Gipsies and Turks. There are also 400,000 Jews, 200,000 Gipsies, 85,000 Slavs, 39,000 Germans, 29,500 Hungarians, 8,000 Armenians, 5,000 Greeks, 2,000 French, 1,000 English, and a few Italians, Poles, and Tartars, the latter race especially predominating in the Dobrutscha. Most of the people belong to the Greek Church, but it is affirmed that public and private morality is low; and the manners of the upper classes, many of whom are very wealthy, are a sort of Oriental imitation of those of the same class in France. In Wallachia, the summer heats and droughts are extreme, and the winter cold equally immoderate. But the soil is wonderfully rich, and the crops of maize, grapes, fruits, and all other crops suitable for such a climate, very heavy. In the broad forests immense herds of swine root, and in the pasture lands sheep, cattle, and horses. The same may be said of Moldavia. In both provinces there are mines, but with the exception of rock-salt few of the subterranean riches of the country are developed; while the exports, consisting mainly of grain, sent to Austria and Great Britain, amount to much less than what they might were the country opened up by railways, or by good roads. As it is, about 1,200 miles of rails have been laid, and Bucharest, the capital, now aims at being a little Paris in all its bad, though in few of its good features. The country is, however—the climate aside—a fine one, the general characteristic of the kingdom being a bare plateau, backed by the thickly-wooded Transylvanian Alps, permeated by a number of rivers which, like the Pruth, the Sereth, and the Aluta, are tributaries of the Danube. The mode of government is a limited monarchy. But the people are easily impressed, extremely volatile, and as a consequence irritable and difficult to rule. Their tongue, written and spoken, is the Roumanian, a corrupted form of Latin, yet so near the classical language that any one acquainted with Latin can make out the sense of a native newspaper or book without much trouble. Bucharest, the capital, is a city of 220,000 inhabitants, badly built and extremely heterogeneous, a pretentious palace and a wretched hut being reared side by side, while the large gardens which surround so many of the houses cause the town to spread over a space disproportionate to its population. The "city of pleasure," as the Roumanians with characteristic Chauvinism style their capital, is not a town of much pleasure to those compelled to walk or drive through its badly paved, or altogether unpaved streets, choked with dust and insects in summer, knee-deep in mud during the winter, and full of ruts all the year round. But when once the visitor can get over these

difficulties he will find much in this city of Wallachia both to interest and amuse him. Jassy, the principal town of Moldavia, has only 90,000 inhabitants, and none of the other towns has over 40,000. The people are really very poor and wretchedly housed, while the Boyards, or nobles, are for the most part wealthy, and the owners of luxurious palaces. The Roumanians are swarthy, more like Gipsies than Italians, but lively, intelligent, charitable, generous, hospitable, ostentatious, and somewhat lazy, though their figures and appearance of strength betoken an aptitude for the work which they do

VIEW OF LARNAKA, CYPRUS.

not perform. The women are, as a rule, markedly beautiful, but the laxity of society is lamentable.

The revenue of the State is about £4,720,000, and the expenditure about the same. There is a public debt of £23,918,590, the interest on which has hitherto been paid with creditable punctuality. Divorce is carried to an alarming extent: duelling is very common, and etiquette absurdly minute. There is a standing army of 23,000 men, capable of being raised in war time to about 200,000 men, with 372 guns. There is also a tiny navy on the Danube, consisting of four steamers and six gunboats. The Roumanians are deficient neither in courage nor in patriotism, but their lot is eventually to be swept into the all-absorbing Empires of Russia or Austria. The isolated nature of the people and their tongue forbid the idea that the country will ever be able to aggrandise itself

at the expense of any of its neighbours, though there is the suspicion of a desire to absorb Transylvania, and to regard the 200,000 "Contzo-Wallachs" in Servia as an excuse for casting a longing eye well within the Slav border.*

CHAPTER XIV.

Europe: The Germanic States.

In dividing Europe into Slav, Latin, and Germanic or Teutonic States, we have followed the convenient classification of Mr. Johnston. At the same time it will have been seen that no country yet mentioned was entirely either Slav or Latin. The nationality of the majority of the population or of the ruling people was the guide to its inclusion under one or other of the heads mentioned. Still, on the whole, the system adopted, if not in unison with the strictest dicta of ethnography, was fairly accurate, and gained in convenience what it lost in scientific accuracy. It is the same with the last group to which we propose to devote the few pages which are still at our disposal. Austria is, for example, a German State. But in the Austrian Empire is the Magyar kingdom of Hungary, and the many Slav provinces which own the rule of the Emperor-King. Germany is essentially German: but even in Germany there are Polish Slavs, and the Mecklemburgers are ruled by a family of Slavonic origin. Belgium many might dispute our right to include under the division of the German States at all, since the tongue of the Court and the educated class is essentially French, and even Walloon is a rude French *patois*. But about 57 per cent. of the people are Flemings, a Teutonic race who speak a form of Low German, while the Walloons are the descendants of the Gallic Belgæ, who, though Romanised at an early stage of their natural life, are still more German than Latin. The Dutch descended from the Teutonic tribe of Batavi, are essentially Germanic, and even the 30 per cent. of them who claim a Fleming and Friesland origin are ethnically of the same race. Austria is also a German Power, in which the German population is small in comparison with the Slavs; and the Hungarians or Magyars, who form a kingdom by themselves, who have relatives in the Szeklers of Eastern Transylvania, in addition to Roumanians in the form of the Wallachians of Southern Transylvania and Eastern Bukovina, and the motley crowd of Jews, Gipsies, and Armenians scattered throughout the Empire. Switzerland, also classed among the Germanic Powers, is equally heterogeneous, for though nearly three-fourths of the people of the Central

* Ozanne: "Three Years in Roumania" (1878); Cretzulesco: "La Roumanie considérée sous la rapport physique, administratif et économique" (Bull. de la Societe geographique roumanie, No 1—5, 1876); Urbicini: "Les Provinces Roumaines" (1856); "Farming in Roumania (*Times*, April 25, 1881), and the various Reports of Embassy and Legation, Consular Reports and Official Publications up to date.

and Northern Cantons are Teutons, who speak German, the rest are French, Italian, and another branch of the Latin race—Rhæto-Romanic. Even Germany itself is not altogether German, for on the east are 3,000,000 Slavs; on the west 200,000 French and Walloons, not including the Danes of Schleswig and the Friesians of the Friesian Islands, since they are essentially of the Germanic family, a fact which science insists on, though patriotism may disallow. The Scandinavians are perhaps the less mixed of the Teutonic races. In the south there is, of course, a good deal of German blood—that is, German of modern times, and perhaps some Slav—but still Denmark is the country of the Danes, who, though they may speak in Jutland, Zealand, and the off-lying islands dialects, slightly different, have one language in common. The people of Norway are also pure-blooded Scandinavians, and speak, except in the remote districts where the old Norse still holds its own as the vernacular, the Danish literary tongue, though the Finns and Lapps belonging to the Asiatic families of men still keep possession of the northern part of the Scandinavian Peninsula. The Swedes are also Scandinavians, who speak another dialect of Danish, but from the variety of physical characteristics which they display, have evidently some admixture of rare elements, perhaps aboriginal, which cannot now always be clearly traced. The Icelanders and Faroese are pure-blooded Norse, while the British Islands, though essentially Teutonic over their greater portion, have in Wales, the Highlands of Scotland, and over the whole of the Hebrides, the Isle of Man, and Cornwall an almost unmixed Celtic population. The Channel Islanders are Norman-French; and the Shetlanders, Orcadians, and Caithness people almost equally Scandinavian, though for more than two hundred years speaking English as their only language. There is also some Roman admixture, derived from the conquerors who held the southern portion of Great Britain during four centuries; much Danish from the various northern invaders, who settled on the coast or pushed into the interior as conquerors and masters; and heterogeneous French elements from Normandy, Flanders, and half the cities of Eastern Europe, whence William the Conqueror drew his army, though, as the Normans were also "Frenchified" Scandinavians, this admixture cannot be pronounced as any fresh element added to the already curious ethnical *olla podrida* subsequently known as the English people. Beneath all, forming the substratum of the British people at the present day, are the Celts, who were undoubtedly masters of these islands at the date of Cæsar's arrival. At what date the Teutonic branch of the Aryans entered Europe we have now no means of knowing. It is, however, certain that the Romans began to know of their existence only a short time before the Christian Era, and that it was not until the fourth century A.D. that they pushed within the boundaries of the Empire, and occupied much of the country, which they have never since quitted. With the exception of the Hungarians, who arrived in the tenth century, and the Turks, whose invasion is historically known to date from the fourteenth century, the Germans are probably the last arrived in Europe of the great Asiatic hordes, though as to the site of their original home we can in vain even guess. Tall, well-formed, and strong, they are among the most powerfully built of the European peoples; while the mental characteristics of the Germans are great earnestness, immense power of intellectual application rather than great appreciation of the subject in hand, logical acuteness more than wit, and a practical side of character curiously superadded to a dreamy, philosophical

cast of mind which has long been noted as a prominent feature of the Teutonic metaphysicians and poets. The Germanic people have always been rovers. Not inhabiting countries with great extents of waste land capable of being brought under cultivation, or blessed with climates so soft that Nature yields her gifts without an effort, they have been forced to cultivate habits of thrift, industry, and patience; and though distinguished by their love of native land, have ever been the readiest to leave it for new homes across the seas. Hence they have become the greatest colonisers of the world, and they are destined to become, if indeed they are not already, its rulers. The Latin people of America have shown little aptitude for self-government; and even in the north, where Teuton and Celt are about equal in number, the former is rapidly becoming all the governing power, and when in time the two great streams of immigrants who at present pour into the United States become blended, a race will arise possessing many of those characteristics which have enabled the English to obtain the mastery of so much of the world.

Austria-Hungary.

The Austrian Empire consists of Austria proper and Hungary, or as they are sometimes styled, owing to the stream called Leitha which forms part of the boundary between them, the Cis-Leithan and Trans-Leithan monarchies, though since 1867 they have had a common ruler in the Emperor of Austria, who is "Kaiser" in one country, and "König" in the other. But though both sections of the dual monarchy have a common foreign policy and military system, yet they have separate ministers, parliaments, and methods of general and local government. In point of population, Austria-Hungary is about fourth among the European nations, the entire Empire of Austria containing, according to the last estimate, less than 22,000,000 people; while the last census of Hungary gives it a population of 15,610,729, an increase of 193,404 in ten years, or without Croatia 138,760, which is less than 1 per cent. on the decimal period, in spite of there being comparatively little emigration from the kingdom. The increase is due nearly entirely to the towns. In area it is the third European country. It contains 241,000 square miles, or in other words, is over four times as large as England, but smaller than either Scandinavia or Russia, the former of which has less population, the latter much more. The territories of the House of Hapsburg may be fairly designated the Valley of the Danube, for that river and its tributaries drain its almost entire extent. Three-fourths of it are mountainous or hilly, the Alps, Carpathians, and Sudetic Alps traversing it on a scale which makes the mountain scenery of Tyrol and Salzburg very little inferior to that of Switzerland. The lowlands of the Austrian Empire are comprised for the most part in Hungary, which we have seen is a land of great flats, and the plain of Galicia. The sea-coast of Austria is about 1,000 miles in length, stretching from the Gulf of Trieste to the southern point of Dalmatia; but as the Dalmatian rocky shores are almost isolated from the rest of the Empire, the peninsula of Istria, which stretches into the Adriatic, is almost the only maritime portion of Austria proper. The Platten See, which contains about 400 square miles of water, swarming with fish, as do most of the waters of Austria, is the largest lake in the Empire. Like the Neusiedler See, another large lake, it lies

THE GREAT GEYSER OF ICELAND.

in Hungary, between the Danube and the Drave, and both bear evidence of having been at one time much more extensive. The first-named is shallow and stagnant, and overflows in spring, and the second is so rapidly drying up, that between the years 1865 and 1870 a great portion of the ground hitherto covered by it was under cultivation. Both lakes are surrounded by fruitful vineyards, but the large morasses in their vicinity render the labour of the cultivator somewhat limited. These extensive Hungarian swamps also breed fevers, and though of late years much has been done in the way of draining them, a morass connected with the Neusiedler See covers upwards of eighty square miles. A country so varied in surface as Austria has naturally a variety of climate. But on the whole it is very favourable from the extremes of the Carpathian Mountains, where the vine will not grow owing to the long cold winters, to the shores of the Mediterranean, where rice, aloes, oranges, lemons, and oil and silk are the staple products of the country. Hungary also supports many vineyards, but it is essentially a land of wheat, maize, and cattle; the Hungarian wines being especially held in esteem. The plain of Hungary is in reality a treeless steppe, about 300 feet above the level of the sea; while so extensively are the mountain heights of Austria clothed with timber, that the forests of the country occupy one-third of its surface. The greater number of the people are Roman Catholics. Roman Catholicism is, indeed, the State faith, though perfect toleration is permitted; and education, except in Austria proper, where it is compulsory, is still in an extremely backward condition. In the mountain regions the people are mainly miners and graziers; in the plains they are agriculturists, and to a less extent are also engaged in pastoral pursuits. The rivers are so full of fish that it is a common saying in the country that the Theiss, which winds through the plain of Hungary, is two-thirds water and one-third fish. Hunting is also pursued as a profession in the Carpathian Mountains, the wolf and bear being still numerous in all the less-frequented portions of the Empire. In Dalmatia, the rocky surface of which affords little encouragement to the husbandman, the sea fisheries supply a livelihood to most of the population. In Styria and Carinthia, silver, copper, lead, zinc, nickel, gold, and above all, the iron which is so extensively distributed throughout the Empire, are the main sources of wealth for these regions. The Bohemian coal-fields are among the richest in Europe, and the famous salt mines of Wieliczka, near Cracow, and of Salzburg in the Tyrol, are famous far beyond the limits of Franz Josef's dominions. Manufactures of wool, metal, stone, wood, and leather give employment to numbers of people in the German parts of the Empire, and the iron goods of Styria are of some esteem. But in the arts and industries, Austria is behind the neighbouring Teutonic and French countries; and in Hungary especially there is little effort made to develop these wellsprings of national prosperity. Nor, owing to this cause, as well as to the isolated character of the Empire, is there much foreign trade done, except in wheat and flour, which is sent down the Danube to be shipped in the Black Sea, or overland by rail to Germany, the manufactures of which Austria is still compelled to purchase. Vienna, however, sucks the life out of the rest of Austria, or perhaps it would be fairer to say absorbs within itself a vast portion of the industrial activity of the country. This fine city of 841,000 inhabitants is the capital of the Empire, though Buda-Pesth, a twin city on either bank of the Danube, is the actual as well as the official metropolis of Hungary. The gross revenue of the country was in 1880

£63,786,913, and its expenditure £68,505,042. The national indebtedness was at the same date £374,539,429; and the army on a peace footing amounted to 267,000 men, capable of being increased in war time to the number of 1,099,726. The navy consists of forty-four vessels, including thirteen ironclads; while, to complete these brief statistics of the strength of Austria, it may be added that already there are over 12,000 miles of railways in action throughout the country.* Austria, up to the year 1866, was an absolute monarchy of the most intolerably despotic order. Since that date it has become constitutional, and the sovereign is now a limited monarch. The country is progressing, albeit not rapidly increasing in population, especially in Hungary. But the very nature of its government render it badly bound together, and ready at almost any moment to break into a score of pieces. It is "only a Government—not a nation." Austria, with its provinces of Styria, Salzburg, Carinthia, Carniola, Gœrtz, Gradisca, Istria, Trieste, Tyrol, Voralberg, Bohemia, Silesia, Galicia, Bukovina, and Dalmatia; and Hungary with Croatia and Slavonia, Transylvania, the town of Fiume, and the "military frontier," not to mention the occupied provinces of Herzegovina and Bosnia, including Turkish Croatia and the semi-independent petty principality of Liechtenstein, comprise a strange heterogeneous assortment of States, scarcely one of which is inhabited by the same people, and almost all of which have aspirations after a more or less autonomous existence when the final crash arrives. Austria is, indeed, to use the words of Mr. Freeman, "a Power which rests on no national basis, but which has been simply patched together during a space of six hundred years by this and that grant, this and that marriage, this and that treaty." It "is surely an anachronism on the face of modern Europe. Germany and Italy are nations as well as powers. Austria, changed from the *Austria* of Germany into the *Neustria* of Hungary, is simply a name without a meaning." †

Germany.

The German Empire is monarchially what the United States of America are from a republican point of view. It is actually a collection of States, having in common a central federal government, which controls the army, navy, customs, and certain other departments, but each of which is otherwise ruled by its own sovereign in accordance with its own constitution. This region, under the sway of the German Emperor, is about four times the size of England—that is, 208,500 square miles, and is usually distinguished into Upper and Lower, or, as they are sometimes designated, Southern and Northern Germany. The first is the more mountainous and picturesque of the two, owing to its position on the plateaux of the Alps and other minor ranges, which stretch northward from them, but the second, though occupying the monotonous plain of Northern Germany, which we have seen stretches across Denmark into Southern Sweden is, if not the richest,

* "The Historical Geography of Europe" (1881).

† Ungewitter: "Die Oesterreichische Monarchie" (1856) and "Geschichte der Oesterreichischen Kaiserstaates" (1859); Steinhauser: "Geographie von Oesterreich-Ungarn" (1872); Brachelli: "Statistische Skizze der Oesterreichisch-Ungarischen Monarchie" (1874); Ficker: "Die Völkerstämme der Oesterreichisch-Ungarischen Monarchie" (1869); Levy: "L' Austriche-Hongrie" (1872); Löher: "Die Magyaren und andere Ungarn" (1874); Patterson: "The Magyars" (1870); Crosse: "Round About the Carpathians" (1879); De Worms: "The Austro-Hungarian Empire" (1877), etc.

the most important section of the Empire. In this region are the principal rivers of the country, viz., the Rhine, the Weser, the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula, and many of the greatest commercial cities of the Empire. Moreover, North Germany possesses the only seaports of the country, the sole maritime outlet of the south being by way of the Danube, which drains the south-eastern corner of the region. The climate of Germany is comparatively mild on the seaboard, except where it forms the shores of the Baltic; but in the interior of the Continent it is extremely hot in summer, and correspondingly cold in winter. The dryness of the air renders the country healthy: hence phthisis is comparatively rare, in spite of the easterly winds of spring, which are chillier than those with which we are so painfully familiar; but the winter is cold and dry, the principal rainfall being during the winter season. Germany is for the most part capable of being utilised. Forests cover about 25 per cent. of the surface, the prevailing trees being pine and fir in the north, oak and other deciduous species in the south, 65 per cent. by lands fitted for cultivation, and the rest by mountains and moors, either untillable or valuable for mining purposes alone. In the south, grapes and tobacco are favourite crops; in the north, rye, barley and wheat, oats and potatoes, the latter being grown as much for the purpose of the distiller, who extracts from them a powerful spirit, as for food. Horses, cattle, and sheep are also reared in great numbers. The iron and coal fields of the Ruhr, a tributary of the Rhine, of the upper valleys of the Oder and of the Saar, a tributary of the Moselle, are famous all over the world, and support the German manufacturing industries centred at or about Breslau, in one basin, and about Elberfeld, Dortmund, Barmen, and Eisen (where are situated the greatest iron works in Europe) in the other. In the Hartz are silver and copper mines, and in the Erzegebirge and Riesengebirge, silver, copper, tin, lead, antimony and cobalt, gypsum and salt are deposited in various districts; while the alum strata of Silesia, and the neighbourhood of Stassfurth supplying a source of prosperity to large sections of the country. Manufacturing industry has greatly progressed of late years; and since the different States have united in one general custom's system the trade of the whole country has taken rapid strides. Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck are the only States of the Empire which at present are free ports, though even these remnants of the old privileges of the Hanseatic League are likely, before long, to disappear. The condition of education is perhaps higher in Germany than in any other country in the world, and though the Roman Catholics form about 36 per cent. of the population, and are especially numerous in the south, the "religious difficulty" gives little trouble, all faiths being equally subsidised by the State, though none are allowed to exercise control over the affairs which do not come under their proper province. The German constitution is of a free character; but the country having been so long ruled despotically by a multitude of petty rulers, the people have not yet begun to fully appreciate the blessings of unrestricted personal liberty, and hence in the constitution, not only of the Empire but of the individual States, there is a large amount of the patriarchal element, even where, as in one or two of the duchies and principalities, the popular will is scarcely, if at all, represented. The Bundesrath, or Federal Council, controls the military and political affairs of the Empire, the headship of which is vested in the Kings of Prussia. This Council is composed of the chiefs of the different States constituting the Empire, while the Reichstag, or

Diet of the Realm, is a Parliament of one chamber, elected by universal suffrage. Each State has, in addition, its own system of internal government, and in most cases its legislature, composed of one or two chambers, either elective, appointed, or hereditary, or a mixture of the three. At present, all the German States outside of Austria are in the Empire, viz., four Kingdoms (Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, and Würtemberg); six Grand Duchies (Baden, Hesse, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Saxe-Weimar, and Oldenburg); five Duchies (Brunswick, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and Anhalt); seven Principalities (Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen, Waldeck, Reuss-Greiz, Reuss-Schleiz, Schaumburg-Lippe, and Lippe-Detmold); three Free Cities (Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bremen), and the Reichsland, or Imperial territory of Alsace-Lorraine (Elsass-Lothringen), recovered from France after the war of 1870–1. At one time, prior to the Napoleonic wars, Germany was broken up among a vast number of petty potentates, some of whom ruled the tiniest of territories. But most of these are now disestablished, and have only the honorary title of Prince. After the war of 1866 there was a further sweeping of rulers off the chessboard, Prussia constituting herself the residuary legatee of Hanover, Nassau, and Hesse, as well as of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein; and the signs of the times are that there will be, by-and-by, a still further simplification of the political geography of Germany in favour of the all-absorbing Hohenzollern family. By the census of December, 1880, the population of the Empire was ascertained to be 45,194,172 souls, as against 42,727,260 at the previous census in 1875. The increase in five years is therefore 2,466,912. The population of the different States of the Empire is now as follows:—Prussia, 27,251,067, against 25,742,104 in 1875; Bavaria, 5,271,516, against 5,022,390 in 1875; Saxony, 2,970,220, against 2,760,586 in 1875; Würtemberg, 1,970,132, against 1,881,505 in 1875; Baden, 1,570,189, against 1,507,179 in 1875; Alsace-Lorraine, 1,571,971, against 1,531,804 in 1875; Hesse-Darmstadt, 936,934, against 884,218 in 1875; Mecklenburg-Schwerin, 576,827; Mecklenburg-Strelitz, 100,269; Saxe-Weimar, 309,503; Saxe-Meiningen, 207,147; Saxe-Altenburg, 155,062; Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, 194,479; Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt, 80,149; Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen, 71,083; Reuss-Schleiz, 50,782; Reuss-Greiz, 101,265; Oldenburg, 337,154; Brunswick, 349,129; Anhalt, 232,717; Waldeck, 56,548; Schaumburg-Lippe, 35,332; Lippe-Detmold, 120,216; Lübeck, 63,571; Bremen, 156,229; and Hamburg, 454,041. Each State has its own Budget. But for the purpose of defraying the common expenditure of the Empire, there was last year derived from customs, certain branches of excise, the profits of the post-office, and the telegraphs, and the contributions of the individual States in aid of the funds, the sum of £26,962,632. The army, which on the peace footing consists of 427,274 men, and on the war footing of 1,392,011, cost, in 1880, £18,094,419; while the navy, which consists of seventy-nine steamers, including twenty ironclads, absorbed £2,962,882. There is an Imperial Debt of £14,000,000; but as a set-off there is a variety of invested funds amounting to £43,274,390, which includes the French war indemnity, yearly increasing by interest, and intended to be drawn upon only in case of foreign war or invasion.* Germany has never had any colonies or possessions of any kind beyond

* Cohen: "Etudes sur l'Empire d'Allemagne" (1879); Neefe: "Statistischer Almanach für das Deutsche Reich" (1879); Neumann: "Das Deutsche Reich in geographischer, statistischer und topographischer Beziehung" (1872-74); Vizitelly: "Berlin under the Empire" (1879); Gould: "Germany," (1879), etc. etc.

the seas, but mainly owing to the oppressive military system, which entails service on every male, the migration from Germany is proportionately greater than from any other European country, except Ireland, in spite of most of the peasants cultivating their own land. Indeed, it is probably owing to this very cause that so many must necessarily seek farms in other countries, for where the cultivators are irremovable it necessarily follows that the soil being a fixed quantity, and those desirous of it an indefinite number, there must

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every year be a surplus who cannot possibly get what they desire, and must therefore hive off to other pursuits or to other lands where soil is plentiful or the conditions of tenure different.

Switzerland, Belgium, and Holland.

Switzerland is a federal republic, but the Central Government is so weak that the twenty-two cantons making up the country are each, to all intents and purposes, independent States, such as were most of them before they banded together for mutual defence against their foreign enemies. It is essentially the land of the Alps; and hence is the most mountainous and picturesque of Central European countries. Indeed, it is nearly impossible to look in any direction from any point of Switzerland without seeing mountains, glaciers, or snow; and accordingly agriculture can be followed only in the

valleys, though the mountain sides, as the snow disappears, afford excellent pasture for the herds of cows, sheep, and goats. No country in the world has a more varied climate. On the mountain-tops are Arctic frosts; in the valleys a summer temperature sufficient for the rearing of crops of maize, hemp, tobacco, and grapes, in addition to all the products of temperate Europe. Forests cover one-sixth of its surface, and only a small portion of the rest of the country can be cultivated. Owing also to its inland position, its foreign trade is small, though it manufactures silk, cotton, linen, lace, thread, woollens, and, above all, the clocks and watches for which some of its towns, like Neufchatel and Geneva, have long been famous. In 1880, its federal revenue was £1,623,900, and its expenditure a little more; but each canton has its own income, and spends its taxes as seems good to it. The military establishment is, however, in common, and consists on a war footing of 215,000 men. The Federal Assembly consists of two chambers, and the President and Vice-President are elected for one year only. The country contains altogether 15,900 miles, or about half the area of Scotland. Railways penetrate much of it, while the fine lakes of Constance, Zurich, Lucerne, Zug, Thun, Brienz, Neufchatel, Geneva, and Bienne afford inland communication, and parts of the Rhine and the upper stretches of the Rhone are also navigable for some distance through Switzerland. Three-fourths of the inhabitants are Germans, the rest are French and Italian. The majority of the people are attached to the Protestant faith; of the remainder, two-fifths being Roman Catholics, and a considerable number Jews. By the census of 1880, the population of the entire country amounted to 2,831,787, which shows that in thirty years they have increased 441,671, or, on an average, 14,337 a year. In one canton—Aargau—there has been a regular falling off, but in Basel City, Uri, Zug, Neufchatel, and Geneva there has been a large increase.*

Belgium is one of the smallest, most prosperous, and most thickly populated of the European States. In all, it comprises an area of 11,373 square miles, and a population, in 1879, of 5,536,650, including an army of 46,575 on a peace footing. The north and west of the country are flat, and might be classed physically with Holland, of which, until the year 1830, it was politically a part, but the southern region, which comprises the Ardennes, a hilly country stretching on to the east, and rising to the height of 2,000 feet, is one of the prettiest and most picturesque regions in this section of Europe. No land of the same size is so admirably cultivated, and it is impossible to point to any spot out of England where, in an equal space, so much wealth and industry centre. The iron and coal-fields, the long navigable rivers, like the Meuse, the Sambre, and the Scheldt afford easy communication with all parts of the interior, owing to the facility with which canals can be dug from one river to another all over so flat a country. At Charleroi and Liége there are also manufactures of every sort, and altogether the country is singularly prosperous. Its revenue reaches the amount of £11,000,000, and its public debt of all kinds is less than £54,000,000. The people are partly of Germanic, partly of Romanic origin, but their sympathies are more French than Teutonic, and it is their boast that Brussels is a miniature Paris in manners, culture, and morals. The majority of the people are Roman Catholics,

* Dixon: "The Switzers" (1876); Wirth: "Beschreibung and Statistike der Schweiz" (1871–75); etc. etc.

and formerly the clergy of that faith exercised undue influence in the country. But for the last three years the liberal section of the community have succeeded in bringing about a more secular state of affairs. Education having been entirely in the hands of the church was, formerly, much neglected, but there is now a more general diffusion of knowledge among the masses of the people, and in the higher walks of learning the universities of Louvain, Brussels, Ghent, and Liége are working in a manner which have gained them high repute throughout the world.*

Holland, or the Kingdom of the Netherlands, is perhaps the flattest country in Europe, as it is one of the smallest. Its total area is 12,680 square miles, and its population last year 4,012,693. The greater part of it is pure mud, brought down in ancient and modern times by the Rhine and its tributary or lower branches, or which has been reclaimed from the sea by the ingenuity and industry of that remarkable race who inhabit it. When the first Napoleon annexed it, he grimly remarked that the country was composed of the silt of French rivers, and ought therefore by right to belong to France. From a physio-geographical point of view he was not far wrong. The appearance of the region is one vast meadow, crossed and re-crossed by canals, which form the main highways of the country, green fields surrounded by canals, and quaint villages embosomed in poplars and pollard willows. The view is monotonous, but pleasing in the evidence it affords of broadly-spread peace and plenty, the fruit of courage in the past, and of unwearied industry at all times. A great portion of the country lies under the level of the sea, which is only kept from bursting in and submerging the land by mile after mile of great dykes, the building and conservation of which form prominent features in the domestic and political economy of "mud-begotten Holland." Land is being daily reclaimed from the sea, embanked and piled, and "to the stake a struggling country bound." The Haarlem Lake, on which naval battles have been fought, is now dry land covered with farms, and dotted by prosperous villages; and since the North Sea Canal has given Amsterdam a direct outlet to the ocean, it has been proposed to embank and pump out the Zuider Zee, which, until the salt water invaded it in the seventeenth century, was an inland lake. Indeed, in Holland there is a constant war in progress between the sea and the land; and the annals of the country are filled with details of the wild destruction caused by the ocean bursting the dykes, and the courage of the people in setting to work out their salvation against such fearful odds. The 4,037,000 people who in 1880 inhabited the country are an industrious race of farmers, merchants, manufacturers, fishermen, and sailors, the greater number of whom are Protestants, and, so far as the younger generation is concerned, well educated. Most of the great cities are built on piles driven into the oozy mud, so that the people live, as Erasmus, their countryman remarked, like birds perched on trees, but with the exception of fevers in some of the more southern islands and a tendency to ague, the country is healthy and pleasant, though humid in summer and cold in winter. The country is ruled by a limited monarchy and the States-General, a Parliament of two chambers. The King of Holland is also Grand Duke of *Luxemburg*, a

* Laveleye: "Essai sur l'economie Rurale da le Belgique" (1865); Meulemans: "La Belgique, ses resources agricoles, industrielles et commerciales" (1866); Tarlier: "Almanach du Commerce de la Belgique" (1879), etc.

neutral territory of 1,000 square miles, geographically situated in Germany, and inhabited by about 206,000 people, mostly of Germanic origin and speaking the German language. Politically, however, this State has more connection with "the Low Countries" than had Hanover with England when the British Sovereigns were electors, and subsequently kings of that country.

In 1880, the Dutch revenue amounted to £9,211,497, and its expenditure to considerably more. The national debt amounts to £78,601,000; its imports to about £62,000,000; its exports to £45,000,000; its army to 63,000 men, not including 37,000 specially enlisted for service in the vast East Indian Colonies (already noticed), and the fleet of one hundred and two steamers and fourteen sailing vessels. The Dutch are a singularly sober-minded practical people, who for ages were the terror, the butt, and the admiration of Europe, and if now fallen from the high position they at one time occupied in the world as soldiers, sailors, explorers, traders, and artists, they are a race among whom material comfort, liberty, and happiness are as generally distributed as among any other in Europe.*

Scandinavia.

North of Germany and east of Russia lie the Danish Peninsula and islands, and the great Northern Peninsula, which is divided between the united kingdoms of Sweden and Norway. The three countries are inhabited by essentially the same race, who speak dialects of the same language, and have at different times been ruled by the same sovereigns. Until the early part of the present century, Norway and Denmark were under one crown, and the people still speak the same tongue, while the Swedes use another dialect of old Norse, though the vulgar speech of the south is understood by the fishermen and peasants on the other side of the Öresund. In early times, the Scandinavians were celebrated as warriors and conquerors. Their pirate fleets swept the seas as far south as France, and their armies invaded England and Normandy, establishing colonies and subsequently dynasties in these countries. Even as late as last century the Kings of Denmark and Sweden were of weight in Europe. But little by little Denmark has lost land and power, and while Sweden has been deprived of some of her territory by Russia, she has won Norway from Denmark, and under the wise rule of the Bernadottes—the son and grandsons of one of Napoleon's marshals—they have gained, in seventy years of peace, liberty, and progress more than they ever reaped during the long ages of ghastly "glory" when they were the scourge of the north.

Denmark, though infiltrated in the south, in the capital, and in the ranks of the aristocracy, by Germans and Swedes,† is inhabited by a very homogeneous race. It

* De Amico: "Holland" (1880; Havard: "The Dead Cities of the Zuider Zee" (1874), and "Picturesque Holland" (1879); Van Hensden: "Handboek der Aardrykskunde, staatsinrigting staatshous honding en statistick van het Koningrijk der Nederlander" (1877); "Allgemiene Statistick van Nederland" (1869-79); Wood: "Holland" (1877), etc.

† Especially in Bornholm. The picturesquely-dressed market folks of Copenhagen are mostly from the Dutch colony whom Christian II. established on Amager Island more than three and a half centuries ago.

consists of a continental and an insular portion. The first is the Peninsula of Jutland, the second and most important the Danish Islands of which Zealand (Sjeland), on which the capital, Copenhagen, is situated, is the largest. Altogether, modern Denmark comprises only 14,750 square miles, or about half the size of Scotland. No country in Europe is less picturesque. Both islands and mainland, the Isle of Bornholm (which is rather higher) excepted, are exceedingly flat, the Hill of Himmelsberg, or Heaven's Mountain

THE PALAIS ROYAL, AMSTERDAM.

(565 feet), in Jutland, being the loftiest eminence in all the country. Jutland, especially on the west coast, is sandy, but towards the interior it rises somewhat, and spreads out into heaths, varied with patches of agricultural land. The islands are more fruitful, and support a population of peasant proprietors, who rear considerable crops of wheat, barley, oats, flax, rye, buckwheat, &c., though, as a rule, the hedgeless country, with the peasants' "gaard," the high towered church on the loftiest ground, and the occasional "herregaard," or country gentleman's modest residence, is monotonously uninteresting,

except for the frugal habits, amiable characteristics, and general prosperity of the people. Beech-woods dot the surface, especially in Zealand, where the beautiful forest of the Dyrehave, and its continuation along the shore of the Sound near Copenhagen, supply a charm to the country which it would not otherwise possess. There is also some "skov" in Southern Jutland, and in Laaland, where there is also a good deal of oak, and in Falster, an island where apple-orchards add variety to the view. There are no mines in the country, and the fuel burnt must, as in Holland, either be imported, or be supplied by the nearly exhausted peat-bogs and the sparse forests. Agriculture, except in the few large towns like Copenhagen, Odense, and Aarhuus, is the main resource of the people. Education is universal and compulsory, and culture widespread, and of a type higher than is found in Germany. Indeed, the polished manners of the Danes contrast favourably with that of the ruder and more boisterous Germans, and has suggested for them the title of "the French of the North." Morality is, however, as high as education, and if the nation, like all small people living in a little country shut off from the world by the barriers which language interposes, is touchily impatient of any criticism save of a laudatory character, fond of praising themselves and depreciating foreigners, inclined to make much of small things and small men, and generally to take a distorted view of the Danes and the world which has pushed them to one side, the impression which they and their country leave in the mind of the stranger is, on the whole, exceedingly favourable. Their Government has since 1849 been a limited monarchy, the Legislature consisting of two Houses, while the power of the King and his ministers is controlled by various checks. By the last census the population of the country number 1,969,454 people. The revenue in 1879–80 was £2,640,108, and the national debt £9,629,256. The Kingdom can raise an army of 31,000 men, and owns a navy of thirty-three steamers. The Danish merchant fleet is large, and all along the coast there are fishing villages of hardy seafaring people, who still preserve many of the traits of the famous "vikinger" who contributed to Great Britain some of its best racial elements.

In addition to Greenland, already noticed, and two of the West Indian Islands, Denmark owns the mountainous *Faroe Islands* lying between Shetland and Iceland. Seventeen of these are inhabited by a population of fishermen, graziers, fowlers, and traders, numbering (in 1880) 11,221, and to the Danish monarchy, though under a constitution of its own, is also attached the famous island of *Iceland*, which contains 40,000 square miles of lava and glaciers, interpersed with farms and grazing grounds, and intersected by endless inlets of the sea. It is thus larger than Ireland, though containing only 72,000 people, many of whom are emigrating, as only a small part of the country is habitable. The people are remarkably well educated, and distinguished for their courage, honesty, and patriotism. They are of the old Norse stock, whose language they speak, and are nearly all Protestants of the Lutheran sect. Fishing, farming a little, pasturing sheep and ponies, and the knitting of stockings and gloves, are the chief industries of the island. Of late years the famous volcano, Hekla (page 205), the geysers (Plate LX.), and the other scenic features of the island have attracted many summer visitors to it, greatly to the enrichment of the Icelanders, though possibly not so much to their moral welfare as might be desired. Reykjavik,

which is a town of some 2,000 inhabitants, is the only place that can be considered of any importance on this "island grand."

Sweden and Norway are now united under one crown, though each maintains its original constitution, and acts generally without any marked love to the other. The peninsula is 1,200 miles long, 450 miles broad at its widest part, and contains an area of 294,000 square miles, Sweden having some 50,000 square miles more than Norway, though, were the latter flattened out, it is possible that it would show the greatest amount of surface. We have already seen that Norway is deeply indented by fjords, or inlets, on the west coast, and that the country generally is exceedingly mountainous, the spaces available for agriculture being only here and there in the valleys, or in the upland "sæters" or grazing-farms. Sweden is not quite so rugged, especially in the south, where it forms the northern extension of the great European plain which passes over the Danish Isles. But both countries—and the same may be said of Denmark—have many lakes. Indeed, Sweden and Norway are half covered with them, and with the wild mountain rivers which supply and relieve them, though, owing to the broken character of the region, none of the rivers are navigable for any distance, their course being marked by cataracts up which the salmon love to leap, and "fosses," or waterfalls, which supply some of the many scenic attractions which are every year making Scandinavia more and more the rival of Switzerland as the "playground of Europe." The whole of Sweden contains only 4,579,000 people, and Norway, by the census of 1875, 1,806,900, about half of what Scotland supports. In some respects the Norwegians are a finer race than the Swedes, and morally the latter do not bear so good a reputation as the former. Nearly all of them are nominally Lutheran Protestants, but the Norwegians are more pious and orthodox than the Swedes, who in many respects are closely allied in their ways of thinking to the French, whose manners the aristocracy imitated after Marshal Bernadotte became king.

The Danes are a very sober people. The Swedes, on the contrary, are continually putting the philanthropists at their wits ends to devise means whereby their taste for corn-brandy can be kept in check, and of late years the Norwegians, either in spite or because of the restrictions put on the sale of spirituous liquors, are also developing a similar propensity. A person who cannot read or write is in Norway, Sweden, or Denmark almost an educational phenomenon, and higher culture is attended to by several universities of good standing. Agriculture, cattle and sheep-rearing, fishing, wood-cutting, and mining are the chief industries of the country. In Sweden there are some iron-works and woollen and cotton manufactories, but 87 per cent. of the population belong to the rural classes. The forests yield pine, birch, and fir, from which are extracted pitch and tar, and in the central region of the country the mines turn out fine iron ore, out of which excellent steel is made. Copper, lead, nickel, zinc, cobalt, alum, sulphur, and marble, in addition to silver and gold in small quantities, are also mined. In the south provinces the coal-field of Scania has begun to attract some attention, but as yet it is not sufficiently worked, or supplies coal of a quality good enough to enable the country to dispense either with wood or foreign fuel.

The estimated revenue of Sweden for 1881 is £1,124,725, while the public debt is £12,116,287, of which sum £3,501,318 are lent to railway companies. There is a main line from Malmo to Upsal, and branches over to the principal places; but most of the lines belong to the State. The Swedish army number 36,500 men, the reserve 126,000, and the militia 20,500. The navy consists of forty-five steamers, manned by 8,000 men, with a reserve of 35,000.

Norway is so mountainous that it does not possess sufficient land to grow food for its thinly scattered population, the fisheries giving employment to the majority of the people not

THORSHAVN, THE CAPITAL OF THE FAROE ISLANDS.

engaged directly in commerce in the towns of Christiania, Trondhjem, Bergen, Stavanger, Christiansand, Tromsö, and Hammerfest. Its income for the last financial year was estimated at £1,918,000, while its expenditure very considerably exceeded that revenue. Its public debt is £5,089,000; its army consists of 18,000 men, including reserve and militia, while its navy comprises thirty-three steamers, most of which are small, and intended for swift action rather than for heavy bombardment. The mercantile navy of Norway is, in proportion to the population, the largest in the world. Never was there—never can there be—such a race of seafaring folks. Every person in Norway who lives in sight of the sea is interested in ship-owning or ship-sailing. Even the servant girls in the towns save up their wages in order to buy a half, a tenth, a twentieth, even the fortieth of a share in

some tiny coaster. Hence the total of 8,248 vessels, comprising 1,527,000 tons, which was at the date of the last published statistics owned in Norway. The Governments of the two countries, it will thus be seen, are perfectly distinct. Each lives under its own constitution and its own laws. In Norway there are no recognised nobility, and in other respects also the constitution is very democratic. In Sweden, on the contrary, in spite of many reforms in the direction of greater voice for the people at large, the country is still somewhat

NORWEGIANS OF THE LOVARDALSSKARD.

aristocratic, and the number of titular nobility—amazing. Up to 1866 there were four estates, nobles, clergy, burghers, and peasants, but at present the Swedish constitution approximates very closely to those of the other European limited monarchies. In Norway, the "Storthing" is composed of two chambers, which, on a deadlock, sit as one, but over their deliberations the Government can exercise little control, and the King has not an absolute right of vetoing any law passed by this "Great Court" or Parliament. Sweden, like Norway, has few large towns. Stockholm, built on an island in Lake Mälar, and remarkable for its picturesque situation among the rocky, tree-clad isles through which this "lake" opens into the Baltic, is a city of 173,133 inhabitants; Gothenburg

has 76,761; Malmö, 37,000; Norrköping, 28,000, but none of the others reach 20,000 people. Up to the year 1875 Sweden had one colony—the West Indian island of St. Bartholomew—which in 1784 was ceded by France, but at the date mentioned Sweden again sold this tropical bit of Scandinavia to its original possessors.*

We have now made the circuit of the world. In company, the writer and his readers have "traced countries far and near more than Le Blanc the traveller," and have voyaged by sea and journeyed by land so long together that, as the many kindly letters and messages he has received give him the right to claim, he may speak to them in the guise of something more than a passing acquaintance. We started from *Britain*, as the native land of most of those who read these volumes, and like wanderers generally we have returned to our homes. Under these circumstances the reader will scarcely be patient enough to wait until Britain is sketched. When the voyager who has been roaming to and fro the earth reaches the port of his departure, he is most unlikely to halt long over the area, statistics, physical features, or moral condition of the country he has reached, and which, moreover, he was expected to know before leaving, otherwise he could have no standard of comparison by which to estimate the merits or demerits of the lands, he was about to visit. We shall imitate his example. To attempt any account of a country (descriptions of which will be found in scores of easily accessible volumes†) in the course of a few pages would be impossible and perhaps superfluous. The census of 1881 will probably show that in these isles there are at least 35,000,000 people in its area of 121,715 square miles; while the Budget for 1881 proves that we must provide over £84,000,000 to meet the national housekeeping expenses. We live in a country which may be described in general terms as mountainous, though in no country in the world is the soil found so scientifically tilled. Yet the agricultural interest is a falling one, it being cheaper to import our bread from the United States, in which the census, taken since we began our travels, shows there are now over 50,000,000 people. As the train runs from south to north we catch a panoramic glimpse of Great Britain in its length of six hundred miles. We see that if a line were drawn diagonally across it from Tees mouth to the vale of the Severn, and then to the mouth of the Exe, that the line would mark out two peculiar regions. South-east would lie agricultural and grassy lands, moorlands, and trim fields. The landscape is not disfigured by tall chimneys indicating coal-fields beneath, nor by ugly crater-like furnaces belching forth flames, the visible signs of the iron-smelting operations going on below. But instead we

* Falbe-Hansen and Scharling: "Danmark's Statistik" (1878-79); Baggesen: "Den Danske Stat i Aaret, 1860" (1860-63); Trap: "Statistisk-topographisk Berkrivelse af Kongeriget Danmark" (1872-78); Broch: "La Royaume de Norvege et le peuple norvegien" (1878); Sidenbladh: "Royaume de Suede" (1876); Lloyd: "Swedish Peasant Life" (1866), and the various current official publications, guide-books, etc.

† Escott: "England: its People, Policy, and Pursuits;" Cassell's: "Our Own Country;" Green: "Geography of Great Britain, etc. etc.

notice the pleasant rolling grassy plains on the chalk known as "downs," the broad New Forest, and the bare plain of Salisbury, the Fens, the plain of York, and the splendid agricultural lands scattered amongst them. North and west of this line lie the older geological formations, and the correspondingly rugged scenery which usually accompanies them. Cheshire, a famous pasture land, is about the only lowland region here, and in this northern region lie also the great coal and iron fields, and consequently the chief manufacturing cities, and the densest population, the London district excepted, in all the kingdom. In Scotland the south is a lowland country, inhabited mainly by the same race as that which occupies the north of England, and is extensively engaged in farming and pastoral pursuits. The northern and western parts again are mountainous, occupied by a scattered Gaelic (Celtic) population, busied in grazing, farming on a small scale, fishing, and the work which the grouse moors and deer forests supply. In the middle district lie the coal and iron fields, and accordingly here are also the chief cities. The extreme north of the island is flat, and in possession of an agricultural and piscatorial people of Scandinavian origin. Ireland is, on the other hand, mainly a great plain. Our climate does not bear a good name. It is wet, especially in the west, where it receives the moist winds from the Atlantic. But if never very hot, it is rarely very cold, and is well fitted for growing grain, pasturing sheep and cattle, and rearing the men, to whom the world is indebted for so much of its enterprise, literature, and industry. But these, and a score of other points, we must perforce leave to another occasion.

And here let me explain that this work was never intended to be a systematic text-book of geography, or, of course, to be exhaustive. To have devoted to every country space proportionate to its importance, or still more to the fancied importance which its natives believed it to possess, would have required more volumes than I had chapters at my disposal. The book was intended—and judging from the correspondence with which we have been favoured this intention has in some degree been fulfilled—to serve for "the general reader" as a kind of clue-guide to a voyage over all seas, and a visit to every land, the sternly systematic form being adopted in as small a degree as possible, and even then mainly for the convenience of easy reference. Under the circumstances, it would have been utterly impracticable to have bound ourselves down to allot space to any country proportionate to its bulk in the world's esteem. The traveller, in starting out on a long journey, hurries through Europe, and rushes back again with equal speed, spending scarcely a glance at the cities of the old and well-known world through which he is speeding. But when he comes to even a tiny islet which is rarely visited, or to a semi-barbarous kingdom which the books have passed over with scant description, he is inclined to linger long, and note their features somewhat fully. This we have done, and hence the seeming disproportion between space on the map and space in our pages. Little-known countries, or those in which the English-speaking people are deeply interested, are most fully discussed; those of less interest, or regarding which the information is to be had plentifully, are more briefly noticed. A work so extensive must of necessity be indebted for many of its facts to a variety of hands. The world sketched after the observation of a single eye-witness would necessarily be a superficial picture. But while acknowledging the many and varied sources of information which we have sifted, simmered down, and digested for the reader's

use, it is but right to say that in scarcely a chapter are there not original data given, and that some of the volumes are founded almost entirely on the author's own researches during many years of travel. This is the case even when the fact is not always stated in express terms. Very frequently the chapters have been read over before publication by the most authoritative persons, and in at least one instance by the actual ruler of the country described. Several of the sections have been revised by officers of high position, and in a still greater number of cases partially by those who have resided long in the regions described. This valuable aid to accuracy has been noted throughout, except when at the special request of my official assistants the information supplied has not been directly credited to them, lest they might be supposed to have dictated the criticisms, as well as the data on which these criticisms of the author were founded. Correspondents, personally unknown to the writer, have also sent him newspapers, rare pamphlets, reports, private letters and journals, in order to put him still further abreast of the state of knowledge regarding particular regions. Nevertheless, he cannot hope to have always avoided errors, in spite of the care taken to state everything as it is; while to express a fear that sometimes he has unwittingly come to false conclusions is simply equivalent to confessing that he is human!

Still he trusts, in parting with those who have so long been his friends and fellow-voyagers, that, though he may soon again meet them in another capacity, as the *cicerone* to the ways of life of those who inhabit the countries described, they will not have read these last lines of so many thousands without being convinced how, as Sir Walter Raleigh wrote, "there are stranger things to be seen in the world than between London and Staines."

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